

# The History Teacher's Magazine

EDITED UNDER THE SUPERVISION OF A COMMITTEE OF THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION

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Volume IX.  
Number 2.

PHILADELPHIA, FEBRUARY, 1918.

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## THE WAR SUPPLEMENTS

appear as part of the regular issues of the MAGAZINE. In January, 1918, was issued Harding's *Topical Outline of the War*; in this, the February issue, appears a number of extracts, translations, and photographic reproductions from a remarkable series of *Belgian Documents*; in March, the Supplement will provide the most complete *Bibliography of the War*, which has yet appeared in English, in which over four hundred books on the War will be arranged topically, and a brief expert appraisal of each will be given. In later issues *War Geography and Maps* will be treated, as well as other topics of value to persons studying the War.

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## HISTORY AND THE SCHOOLS

The MAGAZINE is publishing many articles, in addition to the War Supplements, which bear upon the War and its influence upon the schools of the country. Suggestions for revision of the course of study, practical lessons, and news items serve to keep teachers and others interested in the schools abreast of the most recent thought.

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## McKINLEY PUBLISHING COMPANY

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The War Supplement with this issue is devoted to a description and reproduction of war curiosities from Belgium, more particularly the clandestine press of that country. It is matter for amazement that the Belgians have been able to continue the printing and circulation of these patriotic sheets. Although issued with "regular irregularity," it has been a point of pride with the patriots to make sure that the German commander always receive a copy of each issue. In most mysterious ways in his home or office or upon the street he has been compelled to see and read the paper he cannot suppress. Well may *La Libre Belgique* in its first anniversary number represent him as viewing the many issues and saying,

"For a full year I have searched for thee night and day,  
But still thou horrid little thing hast escaped me away."

The report of the actions of the American Historical Association given on another page shows that the association contemplates the continuance in war times of most of its usual activities. While there has been some reduction in the budget, and the appropriations to certain committees have been cut down, yet there is no valid reason for the stoppage of historical research and authorship.

There is, however, good reason for the direction to war needs of at least a portion of the historical scholarship of the country. A survey of the part played thus far by historians shows they have not been behind any other group in the community in their readiness to place experience and resources at the command of the nation. Aside from the large number of younger men who have gone into active military service or other governmental work, many have been using their historical knowledge for national purposes. There is scarcely a history teacher or college professor in the country who has not been called upon to explain to his community the principal facts and tendencies of recent European and American history. Some have gone upon the platform, travelling thousands of miles and addressing tens of thousands of persons upon war topics; while others have stayed in the library or editorial office, and guided public opinion through the printed page.

Historical scholars have directed many of the public activities of universities and university extension divisions. They have prepared pamphlets, lectures, reading courses and have organized courses of study. They have co-operated in the publication of papers and volumes by university and college faculties. They have joined with public school officials in encouraging a sane study of present national problems.

By co-operative work among historians much has been accomplished. Under the leadership of Professor Guy Stanton Ford many have assisted in the educational work of the Committee on Public Information. The names of all these helpers have not been published, but among those to whom specific credit is given in the publications of the committee are the following: D. C. Munro, W. Notestein, E. E. Stoll, F. L. Paxson, E. S. Corwin, S. B. Harding, C. D. Hazen, A. C. McLaughlin, E. B. Greene, C. Merz, J. W. Garner, and G. W. Scott. Forty-nine scholars co-operated in gathering the information which has recently appeared in the "War Cyclopedia" issued by the committee.

The National Board for Historical Service has undertaken manifold duties. It has encouraged research upon problems connected with the war, and has provided for the publication through established agencies of the results of such research. It has prepared lectures for use in public meetings and in the camps. It has helped to focus popular attention upon the real causes of the war through its prize essay contests. It has organized sub-committees for the study of the problems of pedagogical reorganization of history courses in high schools and in the grades. It has stimulated librarians and archivists to preserve the records of the present war. And in all this work the Board has received without stint the support and assistance of the most distinguished specialists in each field of historical knowledge.

The Supplement for March will be devoted to a Bibliography of the war. An attempt will be made to evaluate all the books which are listed, so that readers and students may know in a general way the character of the books they consult. About four hundred books will be included in the bibliography.

## Pooling of College Interests as a War Measure

BY PRESIDENT JOHN HENRY MACCRACKEN, LAFAYETTE COLLEGE.

There is a widespread feeling that American education is not organized to make its greatest contribution to the war. The experience of the last six months has shown that the need is two-fold: first, the need on the part of the government; second, the need on the part of the colleges; that in both cases the need is not so much for unity of spirit and purpose as for co-ordination, which is unity at work.

The government at Washington needs during the war an administrator of education of some sort who will be of sufficient dignity and authority to rank with the food and coal administrators, and to have authoritative standing with the chief of staff. His function would be to co-ordinate the demands made upon education by the government in the prosecution of the war.

The colleges need a war council with at least seven bureaus—a bureau of propaganda, of legislation, of statistics, of finance, of promotion, of personnel and of international relations, as well as national officers, who shall make the educational point of view at least as potent in the councils of the nation as that of organized labor, or of the anti-liquor movement, or of woman's suffrage. I will present briefly some of the considerations which have led me to these conclusions.

Lord Bryce in his recent article on the "Worth of Ancient Literature to the Modern World," says, "The Greeks, like children, saw things together which moderns have learnt to distinguish and to keep apart." I want to ask you either to go back with the Greeks or forward with the little children of the Kingdom this morning and see things together which as moderns we have learned to distinguish and keep apart. For, as the vice-president of the Guarantee Trust Company told the Illinois bankers, perhaps the greatest lesson we are learning from our excursion "over the top" is the need of national unity. Unity is the watchword of the day, whether on the battle line in Italy, the council chamber in Paris, in the shipping board at Washington, or in this Association of American Colleges. The sacrifices demanded of the individual citizen in the name of patriotism have taught a gospel of assent to a land where individualism and dissent had become rampant. Even before the war the organization of this association expressed the need for greater unity of action among colleges, and this year the word "co-operation" appears with special prominence on this program. I wish to raise the question whether our colleges can go farther than co-operation, and by pooling their interests for the war advance the national interest.

The present popularity of the word "pooling" reminds me that I have lived through a complete era. As an undergraduate student, I wrote an essay in competition for a prize on "The Interstate Commerce

Commission," then a new experiment in government, and a device inaugurated by a people to whom the word "pooling" was anathema. To-day the readiness of the railroads to pool freight, and to maintain joint traffic bureaus, expediting the necessities of the war by the most direct lines, excites only the highest praise and admiration. The readiness of one road to become a freight road, while another remains a passenger road, the sharing of pet terminals and the yielding of trademarks such as "Your Watch is Your Timetable," "The Standard Railroad of America," etc., indicate a submergence of institutional pride which no one would have thought possible three years ago. Up to this time the necessities of the war have not forced upon educational institutions any such radical change of program as in the case of the railroads. The necessity, which is said to be the mother of invention, is discerned by the far-seeing college men on the horizon, but is not yet upon us. We have not heard from England, France, Canada, or even Germany, of any constructive changes in the educational program or institutional life due to the war. We know that the colleges stand empty; we know that they have been used for hospitals and for military barracks; we know that women are replacing men as students in increasing numbers; we know the manifold services rendered the State by members of the faculties in the guidance of public opinion, in scientific invention, in specialized governmental service. We have noted the levelling effect of the war in the pamphlet on British universities and the war, which reports the activities of Manchester, Birmingham and Leeds on complete equality with Oxford and Cambridge, and in the more significant proposal to readjust university representation in Parliament so as to extend the privilege to the provincial universities as well as to Oxford, Cambridge and London. But we have heard of no institutional program at all comparable to the constructive program of our railroads. The colleges of America are casting about, therefore, for examples and analogies in other fields of human activity which they may safely follow. The college trustee who is a railroad man naturally thinks that the colleges should do something similar to what the railroads are doing; the college trustee who is a drygoods man naturally thinks that the college should do something similar to what the drygoods stores are doing—adopt the slogan, "Business as Usual," and as sales fall off increase the size of advertisements in the daily papers and enter into a costly and frantic competition for the patronage which remains. The college trustee who is a broker naturally feels that the colleges should do somewhat as the bankers and brokers are doing—get a leave of absence from their regular work and help the government by raising money for the Red Cross or by selling Liberty bonds. The college trustee who is a manufacturer naturally feels

that the college, like the manufacturer, should adapt its plant to the needs of the war, discontinuing the Latin and Greek lines and enlarging the output in the direction of chemistry, explosives and gas engines. So that just as the plant which in peace time makes drills for wells, now makes steel casing for shells, so the college, which in peace time makes scholars, will in war time make soldiers; the college, which in peace time seeks to refine human material, will in war time adopt the processes which tend to toughen and harden.

War, in the words of the Battle Hymn of the Republic, "tries out the souls of men before the judgment seat" in many ways. To the teacher it is a great test of his educational faith. Every college man to-day asks himself, "Is what we are teaching important? Are we teaching it as fast as we can, or as thoroughly? Are we developing our men physically to the best advantage?" Those whose educational houses are built upon the sand have already been swept away; those whose educational faith has firm foundations have had their belief in the importance of their task reinforced by recent events; and just because the storm has blown away a lot of the unessential decorations, see the essentials and their significance more clearly. Such a company of educators naturally ask themselves, "How can we best perform a task fraught with such importance for the nation?" Shall we enter upon a ruthless period of competition? Shall we take the road of the department stores and increase our appropriations for advertising, send out more agents to drum up trade, lower educational standards, provide short cuts to degrees, reduce tuition fees, offer special inducements in the way of scholarships and free rooms, and so each of us in his own way do his share to increase the number of college-trained men in the nation and save our institutions from extinction? Or, is there some better way by which our joint expenditures in advertising can be directed against ignorance and forces of reaction, our agents' efforts be directed toward augmenting the total number of college students in the country rather than toward increasing our own enrollment at the expense of less wide-awake and energetic institutions? Shall we create a sincere spirit of co-operation which will be "each for all and all for each"? Can we organize some sort of strategic war board which will secure for the important interests of education as able and watchful leadership as is enjoyed by the labor unions, by the anti-liquor forces, or by the cause of woman's suffrage?

For there is no question about the importance of education for war. Brains, trained brains, will win the war. War is to-day so much a matter of delicate and intricate scientific apparatus that only the nation equipped for scientific education can win. But if "brains" is the first word of the countersign by which we pass to victory, the second is "co-ordination." As Major-General Squier said recently in Washington, "In the army of to-day arms are so accurately balanced that co-operation is the keynote of the whole thing." If the artillery continues to blaze away too long you kill your own men. When the barrage stops the front line men must be ready. Communica-

tion between aeroplane, artillery and trench must be absolutely accurate and instantaneous. Had it been so at Gallipoli the whole history of the war would have been changed. Unity of spirit is essential, but co-ordination is no less so. The one will give us a mob, the other an orderly procession. The great manufacturers, like the General Electric, Western Electric, the railroads and the automobile manufacturers have already demonstrated that America excels her Allies in her readiness to pool individual interests for the success of the war. We already have more of this spirit manifested in America than is known in England after three years of war. The same spirit exists among the educational leaders of the country. Nowhere has the response been more prompt or more unanimous to the country's summons. Education has shown a laudable readiness to follow, but for some reason it has lacked leadership and co-ordination. Perhaps this is due to the fact that under our theory of government education is a state, not a national function. Perhaps it is due to an old jealousy between the scholar and the soldier; between the military caste and the men of books, which has come down through the centuries and finds expression in our own adjutant-general's office. Perhaps it is due to jealousy between labor and the high-brow, and democracy's natural suspicion of the expert. Whatever the cause, it is an undoubted fact that education is one of the last great factors in our civilization to organize for the war. Various war agencies have made use of existing educational organizations for recruiting, for the Red Cross, for Liberty bonds, but education has not organized herself for her own no less important work.

It is time that we were finding answers to the question whether the colleges cannot subordinate institutionalism to the common welfare without sacrificing that characteristic college institutionalism, which is one of the richest possessions of the American people and which encourages so much loyalty and self-sacrificing devotion. Whether there is not perhaps some constructive program open to the colleges which shall be neither the road of the department store nor the road of the railroad, but which shall make good our boast that education marches in the van of evolution, and is the first to adapt itself to new conditions.

It is clear enough what we have to expect in the next two or three years if the war continues and the colleges are left each to do the best that it can for itself. We all know the symptoms to which I have referred. The entrance requirements will be less rigidly enforced, free rooms will be offered in empty dormitories, college fees will be cut, the college year will be shortened, degrees will be offered in three years instead of four, instructors will be enticed by larger salaries, more money will be spent on advertising and promotion. Not only will the colleges be shorn of their young men, but the few that remain will be secured at such a heavy cost, and at the price of such inducements, as not only to empty the treasury, but to pervert the relation of teacher and student.

The colleges, however, are not blind to the lessons taught by the Red Cross and Y. M. C. A. campaigns.



It is evident that during the war the most effective appeals will be those which are nation-wide. If money is to be secured for education there must be some way of driving home the truth that education, even though represented by a multiplicity of institutions, is national in its scope and purpose. Neither are the colleges blind to the economies which are being effected in so many directions. If non-essential industries must shut down for lack of fuel, it is evident that non-essential college buildings will have to close for lack of fuel. It has even been suggested that December, January and February be taken for vacation instead of June, July and August. If the Standard Oil companies have to discontinue dividend notices to stockholders because of the increase in the cost of postage, it is evident that colleges must economize even in 3-cent stamps. If women are to replace men on street cars and elevators, on farms and in munition factories, it will not be strange if they replace men to some extent as instructors in laboratories and class rooms. If college instructors and technical men continue to be drafted for government service, it is evident that the few that are left will have to teach overtime—labor union rules to the contrary notwithstanding. There are, it is true, serious difficulties in the way of pooling college interests. It is comparatively easy to pool railroad interests when there is more than enough traffic to go round, and every track is full, because then every facility can be used to its utmost. It would be a more difficult matter to pool department store interests in the face of a shrinking market, because there is not enough to go around, and whatever the division everybody would be dissatisfied. In education the shrinkage has been even greater, and will be greater still in each succeeding year. So that any pooling of the traffic would still leave the educational facilities in a certain measure unused. If you have a large roast of beef it is a relatively easy matter to carve it on the table, but if it is duck, and a very thin one at that, there is a great advantage in individual service. I don't know how the professors feel, but I imagine the college presidents would be quite ready to accept, like the railroads, a government administrator for the period of the war, if like the railroads the colleges could be guaranteed a net income equal to that of the last three years. The Supreme Court, however, has not yet included education within that very elastic phrase "commerce between the states," and even in war time the federal government will probably not venture to do for education what it has done for the railroads. If, therefore, the problem is to be satisfactorily solved, it must be divided into two parts. First, the co-ordination of the war demands of the government upon education, which can be effected by the appointment of an educational administrator at Washington, and second, the co-ordination of the efforts of American colleges and universities so that they may efficiently perform their duty in the present crisis.

You are all familiar with the various attempts made within the past year at Washington to secure the co-operation of education for the war. An enlargement

of the powers and functions of the Bureau of Education, the revival of the plan to make education a separate department with a seat in the Cabinet, seems to be still stranded on the shoal of Congressional opposition. In the advisory commission of the Council of National Defense education was tacked on to engineering as an afterthought, and Dr. Godfrey has struggled heroically to span the two great fields as a Colossus of Rhodes. A good many cargoes, as you know, have passed between his legs in the last two months. Dean McClelland and the Intercollegiate Intelligence Bureau have made some contribution to the problems of personnel and still maintain a somewhat precarious foot-hold in the scheme of things. Now comes the federal board for vocational education, and because they happen to have some money to spend think they are fitted to serve the government as intermediary between the government and education, not only in the field for which they were created and to which their expenditures must by law be restricted, but in other fields as well, and while they grasp for higher education they fail to serve their own particular field, and the Shipping Board and Department of Labor also having some spare cash, start out on their own account in the fields of secondary vocational education.

What the surgeon-general can get in the way of education for his recruits the chief engineer is finally convinced is good for his division, and what is good for the chief engineer is good for the chief signal officer, and what is good for them is good for the quartermaster and the ordnance department, and so education, ready to serve, but with no representative with standing or authority on a par with that of a Secretary of War or Secretary of the Navy, with no priority board chairman, with no railroad director or administrator, becomes servant to all, and is expected to serve not two masters, but certainly seven with all the confusion and uncertainty therein involved. It is rumored that the Department of War wants an educational director on its staff, to take over, not only the educational activities of cantonments, but all questions in which the Department of War and the colleges are concerned. But, of course, the educational director of the War Department would not know what the Navy educational director was about to propose, much less what the Federal Board of Vocational Education, the Committee on Engineering and Education of the Advisory Commission of the Council of National Defense, or the departments of Labor, Agriculture and the Interior had on the slate.

It is evident that the necessities of war require, not only some kind of pooling of educational interests, but some kind of an administrator of education at Washington to whom the various governmental departments can present their educational needs, and where the various demands on the educational resources of the country can be co-ordinated. I propose, therefore, an administrator of education, to rank with the administrator of food and the administrator of coal, and to occupy a seat in the War Council.

Not only is there need, however, of co-ordination in education from the standpoint of the government's war



needs, but there is also need of co-ordination of educational efforts on the part of the institutions for themselves. Everywhere in the educational world is felt the need of some machinery to voice the educational mind, to act for the educational will, and to beg for the educational purse. Various suggestions have already been made for meeting this need. It is a good rule in war time, whenever possible, to convert to war uses whatever structure or organization is at hand, and it may be that this Association of American Colleges under the enlightened leadership of Dr. Kelly, can organize the War Board that we need, or if not this association alone, perhaps this association with representatives of other similar organizations, such as the Association of American Universities, Association of State Universities, etc., might organize such a board. This board ought to represent the colleges as distinct from the government, though in hearty sympathy and co-operation with it. It ought to have national representatives at Washington to give effective expression to any questions of national policy upon which the organizations represented may agree. The National Education Association has recently opened a secretary's office in Washington, making a small but wise beginning in this direction for the public school interests. Higher education ought, particularly, to be heard speaking with no uncertain voice when the question of lowering the draft age comes before Congress—it ought to be heard speaking with no uncertain voice when questions of taxing legacies to colleges come before Congress—it ought to have an official representative to speak for education when a plan is being worked out for universal military training. In a word, higher education needs a national council and national officials to make effective their point of view, enlarge their opportunities for service, secure appropriate legislation, mould public opinion and secure an adequate share of financial support. Such a War Board should have at least seven bureaus: A Bureau of Propaganda, analogous to that undertaken by Sir Gilbert Parker and Professor McNeill Dixon, of Glasgow; a Bureau of Legislation to guard educational interests in Congress; a Bureau of International Relations to take up educational questions which affect our allies as well as ourselves; a Bureau of Personnel to make sure that every teacher in the present emergency is being used to the best advantage; a Bureau of Promotion to dream dreams and see visions for American education and to bring them to the attention of the American people, and a Bureau of Finance to do for education on a large scale what the national boards have been able to do for the Red Cross and the Young Men's Christian Association. If the continuance of education is a patriotic service we must see too that it secures recognition as such, by such devices of iron crosses, uniforms, service stripes and titles, of red and blue triangles and crosses, as appeal to the imagination of democracy. The patriotism of the marine who guards the sugar plantation in Cuba, of the farmer who plants potatoes, of the college professor who teaches French to the soldier, is seen and applauded. The medical scientist wears his reserve officers' uniform in the laboratory, but the uniforms of the teach-

ers even in the ground schools of aviation have recently been taken away from them. I do not say that America has yet reached the point where either a uniform or a title is needed to make the citizen a servant of the nation, but if these things are needed for the popular imagination, American teachers must have them.

We must organize joint campaigns to increase the supply of students, as otherwise any attempt on the part of the college to secure students will be regarded as a selfish attempt for the benefit of the institution, and at the expense of the war. We must encourage wherever possible the differentiation of functions and make it easy for competing institutions to give up to each other certain fields of instruction. If the war continues and the supply of instructors decreases more rapidly than the number of students, we must devise some method by which specialists can give half of their time to one institution and half to another. We must establish some kind of a labor exchange, with which perhaps the Carnegie Foundation would co-operate to insure the most efficient use of all the teachers available. We must adopt a code of professional ethics which will discourage the calling of members of college faculties from one institution to another on short notice in the midst of the term by offers of higher salary. Finally, we must appoint a committee to consider how the deficits of the colleges in this Association, caused by the war, are to be financed as a matter of general national policy. With the immense expansion of governmental activity, due to the war, there will be a strong disposition to have the government control the industries of the country and pay all bills. It is evident that the salvation of the institutions represented in this association does not lie in that direction, but rather in the direction of the national campaigns of the Red Cross and the Y. M. C. A., in nation-wide and universal appeals. So far as I know, there has never been in America a joint meeting of any kind of college trustees. With the readiness of business men to give their services to national movements connected with the war, it is conceivable that even college trustees might be brought together for action. The German General von Ludendorff made a remark apropos of the recent War Council in Paris that "when nations were at their wits' ends they called a War Council." It was a stinging challenge from autocracy to democracy. We have given individualism free play in America, and we all admire what private initiative has been able to do, not only in building its own institutions but in creating a faith in education in the American people which has made possible education through the state with popular approval and support. We must now show ourselves farsighted and broad enough to again blaze a new path and point the way to the American people for a constructive war program for American education, by a willingness to submerge the individual glory of our institutions in a common pool for the public welfare.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> An address delivered before the Association of American Colleges, at Chicago, January 12, 1918.

## The School Course in History: Some Precedents and a Possible Next Step

REPORT OF A JOINT SESSION OF THE ASSOCIATION OF HISTORY TEACHERS OF THE MIDDLE STATES AND MARYLAND AND THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

PHILADELPHIA, DECEMBER 29, 1917.

Chairman, Dean Marshall S. Brown, New York University.

**THE CHAIRMAN:** The subject matter of Professor Johnson's paper is so vitally important and he is so full of that subject, that I am going to take no time in introducing him. He is too well known to need an introduction, but we congratulate ourselves that we have this subject and this speaker this morning. Professor Johnson, Teachers' College, Columbia University, will now speak to us on the "School Course in History; Some Precedents and a Possible Next Step."

**PROFESSOR JOHNSON:**

In the practice of Continental Europe a school course in history has come to mean a carefully graded, connected, organic program, adjusted to the needs of a given kind of school, and designed to be completed by all pupils who pass through that kind of school. Courses in history in this sense began to appear in Europe in the seventeenth century. On the Continent they have for more than one hundred years been a part of the established order in secondary schools, and for about fifty years a part of the established order in elementary schools. They have provided for secondary schools a continuous, required study of history extending over the entire school period, and for elementary schools a continuous, required study of history extending over at least four or five years, and sometimes over the entire school period.

In the United States, from about 1815, when school instruction in history first began to assume perceptible proportions, until about 1890, the prevalent idea was to provide subjects in history rather than to organize courses in history. Neither the problem of grading materials nor the problem of establishing connection between the subjects attracted much attention. In elementary schools the subject was from the beginning the history of the United States, commonly taught in the eighth grade only, but sometimes also in lower grades. In academies and high schools the subjects, the arrangement of subjects and the time allotted varied greatly. Sometimes the work was confined to general history or to ancient history; sometimes to the history of the United States. Sometimes two or all three of these subjects were offered, and even required. Sometimes English history was substituted for one of them, or added as a fourth subject. Other subjects separately listed were Grecian antiquities, Roman antiquities, mythology and, occasionally, church history. Any one of these subjects might stand

either at the beginning or at the end of the school program, or at any point between the beginning and the end. The time allowance for a subject ranged from six weeks to a year.

In the midst of this chaos the Madison Conference of 1892, after resolving unanimously to "suggest nothing that was not already being done in some good schools," found none the less some precedents for an approach to a course in history. The program proposed by the Conference to the Committee of Ten was in a measure graded and connected. It embraced in one view both the elementary school and the high school. It provided for eight years of continuous, required study, with an alternative of six years of continuous, required study. But these ideas were apparently too far in advance of average American practice to be regarded as practical. The Committee of Ten rejected the recommendations for the elementary school as beyond its province and left history for the high school a collection of subjects. The Committee of Seven made familiar the "block system." The first two blocks taken in the order proposed might constitute a course. The other two blocks merely continued the subject system. As this program has been administered not more than two of the four blocks have on the average been made available, and the blocks actually taken, whatever the combination, have been treated in the main as subjects in history and not as related parts of a course in history. The Committee of Eight undertook to provide progressive steps and a continuous program for elementary schools, but the topics for the first six years lacked real connection. The Committee of Five, in revising the work of the Committee of Seven, made a distinct advance in the direction of continuity, but its view of the field of history was somewhat narrow. None of our numerous committees, and scarcely any of our individual contributors of the last twenty-five years, can be said to have achieved for the school course in history either the degree of grading or the degree of connection achieved in Europe.

Since the report of the Committee of Five we seem to have suffered a relapse. The sympathies of the general educational public, never very responsive to the course idea, are now plainly enlisted in favor of a principle that threatens, in some of its present applications, the disintegration even of subjects in history. What is important to us in the present, we are being told, must determine what is important to us in the past, and what is most important to us in the present is our own community. The history pro-

gram must, therefore, be determined by the special interests and special problems of the community. There must be as many kinds of programs as there are kinds of community interests and problems, and a uniform program in history is neither possible nor desirable. Furthermore, these programs must change with the changing interests and problems of the community. What is important this year, or even this month or this week, may not be important at all next year or next month or next week. The coming of the war has, it is true, directed the principle into broader channels. The need of international friendships and national patriotism, and incidentally the need of a reasonable and proper hatred for our enemies, tend in these tremendous and tragic days to overshadow the narrower interests and problems of the community. But the principle of confining history to issues directly suggested by present issues remains the same.

On this principle it is entirely feasible to construct a program in history. A program can, indeed, almost be induced to make itself. All that is necessary, as some very logical advocates of the principle have already discovered, is to let the program follow the current issue of the *Independent*, the *Outlook*, the *Literary Digest*, or the *Review of Reviews*. The principle itself is old enough to be respectable. It was suggested and applied in the seventeenth century. Christian Weise, as far back as 1676, was led by it to emphasize quite in our present manner even the study of current events. The French reformers who drafted the famous school decree of 1793 carried the principle farther than our own reformers have as yet ventured to carry it. But no one, so far as I know, has succeeded in constructing upon this principle a course in history. The reason is clear. If the content of history is to be determined by present interests and problems, and if such interests and problems are constantly changing, only a prophet could plan a connected, organic course in history for the whole or any considerable part of the twelve years of school life, and even such a course would require reconstruction for each set of pupils beginning the course.

Continental Europe has achieved grading, connection and continuity in the history course to a degree that leaves our practice essentially primitive. It has not, however, achieved historicalness. From the seventeenth century to the opening of the twentieth century, history for school purposes was history always in the service of some immediate social need. Instruction was shaped with a view to educational results, and these results were rarely conditioned upon making the past itself intelligible. European compilers of material sinned consciously and courageously against fact. They admitted without hesitation doubtful anecdote and downright fable. They unblushingly paraded national bias. They violated the most elementary sense of historical proportion. They took, in a word, such liberties with history as seemed to them essential to make history useful. The French program of 1902 introduced the radically different principle that the value of history, like the value of

any other subject, consists in its being true, and in this spirit undertook to trace "the principal transformations of humanity." But such views are still exceptional. Outside of France the older tradition is still dominant. It may be summed up in the dictum: History is anything that history is good for.

For the lower grades of the elementary school we have sinned against the verities of history as courageously as any European people, but the best of our recent text-books for the upper grades and for the high school may safely challenge comparison even with the best of French text-books in their regard for fact. Like the French books, they seem to assume that history has something to do with the past as the past; that the past itself can be explained only in terms of what is important in and to the past, and that the past itself must be explained if the past is to be of any service in explaining the present. This, in comparison with the average practice of Europe, is revolutionary doctrine. It is, however, not generally recognized as revolutionary in the United States. It is, in fact, rather commonly regarded as reactionary by those who in the name of reform and progress are now leading us back to the older tradition that history is only what history seems at the moment to be good for. I do not say that our text-book writers have altogether succeeded in making the past intelligible, but in so far as they have recognized that history in school should be not only educational but also historical, they, and not their critics, are the real innovators; the real radicals; the real revolutionists.

The traditional and conventional attitude toward history as a school study has been accentuated and illustrated anew under the pressure of war. We must, as all of us know, win the war. To that supreme purpose every other consideration must be subordinated. Personal convictions, personal emotions, even the love for truth, must blend in one harmonious, overpowering, stern will to victory. What cannot be blended must for the moment be ended. Inevitable, therefore, the question uppermost in the minds of thousands of history teachers to-day, and in the minds of other thousands who are not history teachers, is, "What can history do for victory?" Inevitably the first answers spring out of that wise human instinct which meets needs as they arise without paralyzing scrutiny of the logic involved. Observing a certain lack of warmth in the attitude of some Americans toward the English, attention is directed to the old charge that the study of the American Revolution in our schools tends to promote an anti-British state of mind. Observing further that this state of mind might conceivably hamper co-operation with our British ally, it is a natural reaction to demand revision of our text-books with a view to the cultivation of a pro-British state of mind, and that reaction is now actually in evidence. In a similar spirit it is urged that our school instruction in history should be revised in the direction of a fuller and more generous recognition of our indebtedness to the French, to the Italians, to the Poles, and to other peoples. At a meeting in New York, some months ago, representatives of non-English elements



in our population set forth with such conviction and eloquence the contributions of their respective peoples that Americans of English ancestry might well have wondered if anything of really great importance in the making of the United States remained for them to claim. That is one side of the balance. On the other side we have the disagreeable discovery of divided allegiance and a growing demand, in which some historians share, that history in school should, with all possible courage and all possible devotion, be turned to the one great task of building up a national patriotism. This appears to be just now the dominant call.

The call is of course not new. It has been sounded many times before in the United States and elsewhere, and history, in the United States and elsewhere, has many times responded, with consequences sufficiently apparent to those who care to look for them. We do not seem to look for them. We are not greatly interested in precedents. It is enough for us that an urgent need exists and that we have the instinct to meet it. We are, however, meeting it in a way that the precedents would approve, if we had the time and the inclination to invoke them. The Germans, for example, in the crisis of the conflict with Napoleon, had a problem in making history in school serve the cause of patriotism identical in some fundamental respects with our present problem. Their arguments, and even their language, translated into English, would be found almost identical with arguments and language heard in the United States in 1917. The German arguments won. For almost a century history has been a factor in building up Germanism and that German view of the world of which we have had so many recent examples. We have of late not greatly admired the results. Shall we now, under the stress of circumstances similar to those that confronted Germany one hundred years ago, repeat the German response?

We cannot, it may be urged, repeat the German response because the ideals and institutions which we seek to perpetuate differ radically from German ideals and institutions. But they also differ radically from the ideals and institutions of many other peoples. We wish to build up of course Americanism and an American view of the world. Shall we not in that way, unless we can Americanize the world, exclude, just as the Germans in building up Germanism and a German view of the world, have excluded, an understanding of other peoples? The penalty imposed by the German experiment, now beginning to be understood even by Germans, is the tragic isolation of Germany. We are not at present in a state of isolation and we flatter ourselves that we understand at least the Germans. Some of us are not altogether certain that we do in fact understand the Germans, but if we do understand them, we scarcely give the credit to any history learned in school. Shall we now turn history into channels still further removed from an understanding of other peoples? Strong influences are urging us in that direction.

There are, however, counteracting influences. One of the most potent is the conviction of profound ignorance which has fallen upon us in our enforced

study of the war. Instruction in history outside of school has been provided on a scale never before known and has ranged over a broader field than ever before. Corners of the earth not mentioned in our text-books, peoples neglected because they were assumed to have nothing to do with the development of American civilization, have suddenly been thrust upon our notice in newspapers, in pamphlets, in books, in lectures, on the street, at church, at the theater, until those of us who have not cried for mercy and stopped looking and listening, have actually discovered that the United States and Western Europe have, after all, certain historical connections with the rest of the human race. Another conviction that has fallen upon us in the vast confusion of fact and inference and counsel, created by the war, is that there is such a problem as that of knowing how to look and listen intelligently. Outside of school we are feeling as we never felt before, the need of really understanding other peoples. Such progress as we have made in understanding the Germans has brought with it the pleasant sensation of seeming to understand ourselves better. Such progress as we have made in understanding our allies has left a similar impression. We are in a mood for generalization on the need of understanding other peoples, even those other peoples in our own country to whom we are now striving to make clear the duties of American citizenship. We are ready to grant to an extent not hitherto granted, that the better we can understand other peoples, and the more other peoples we can understand, the better we shall be able to understand and to appreciate that part of ourselves which is distinctively American. So far the need is personal and selfish. But we are not entirely selfish. We feel a need of understanding other peoples for their sake as well as for our own. We have taken our place with other peoples in a drama that touches, and will continue to touch, the entire world, and for the good of the world we want to understand other peoples. The lesson for history teachers is plain.

If this analysis of precedents and of present tendencies is correct, it is a fair inference that the problem of shaping history for schools is somewhat complicated. If, however, we are, as we profess to be, lovers of progress; if by progress we mean building upon the experience of the race, and not building as if nothing had ever been built before, there is a possible next step which can at least be described. Continental Europe has shown us how to make a graded, connected, organic program. Our own experience has taught us a certain regard for fact. France has developed both a graded, connected, organic program and a regard for fact, and has taken for its theme the development of humanity. The war has thrust us into the midst of the world and forced upon us a world point of view. We cannot in these spacious times rest content with merely provincial views of history even in the high and holy cause of patriotism. We want patriotism, but we do not want the patriotism of self-satisfied isolation. We want a patriotism founded upon the kind of understanding of ourselves which comes from an understanding of other peoples



and which brings with it a sense of duty to our neighbors as well as to ourselves. We want history for victory, but we want history still more for what is to come after victory. We are making and living world history, and we must face the problem of teaching world history. The logical next step, if we really wish to move forward, is, then, to take for our field humanity and to organize a course in history for schools that shall represent as accurately as possible and explain as adequately as possible the development of humanity. What does this imply?

In the first place, our facts must be historical and must be recognized as historical. They must represent history that actually happened and not history that might have happened, nor even history that ought to have happened. The best of our text-books for the upper grades and for the high school have already met in part this condition. They treat of history that actually happened. They give us facts. They do not as a rule indicate what it is that makes a fact historical. Facts of widely different degrees of probability, mere personal opinion and pure speculation are mingled in one body of assured information and the pupil is likely to reduce this information to one common level of certainty and to look upon a fact in history as any statement printed in a history book. Roger Williams was born in 1607. Roger Williams was banished from Massachusetts because of his religious opinions. Massachusetts should not have banished Roger Williams. The Massachusetts Bay Puritans came to America to establish civil and religious liberty; the Puritan ideals were narrow and intolerant. Liberty of conscience would have fared better in New England if Roger Williams had never been born. The world knows the history of Massachusetts by heart. The Massachusetts Bay spirit has made the United States the greatest nation in history. We have the printed word for all of these statements. All of them are alike historical in the sense that they are statements actually made in the past. But in other respects they obviously neither belong to one common species nor stand on one common level of probability or of generality. The simplest kind of intelligence in reading history requires some conception of the kinds of evidence behind such statements and of the kinds of operations by which they are built up. History, that is, to be historical must involve not only the question, "What does the author mean?", but the further questions, "How does he know?" and "Is it true?" This does not imply the source method as commonly understood. It does imply some classification of facts according to kind and according to degree of probability and of generality, and sufficient illustration to make the pupil conscious of differences.

In the second place, facts must be selected and arranged from the standpoint of development and with a view to conveying an impression of development. In determining what is important or unimportant we must look primarily for interests and problems that shaped the past, and not primarily for interests and problems now shaping the present. Again, since development implies change, and since the idea of

change in the world can be grasped only through a perception of differences, we must emphasize differences between past and present. Here again the best of our text-books have already met in part the condition. Within the subjects provided by our history programs they have endeavored to trace development. They have not to the same extent nor in the same spirit endeavored to trace the development of humanity. They have not to the extent of modern French practice emphasized differences between peoples and institutions and therefore have not brought home as vividly as French text-books the idea of change in the world.

In the third place we must strive for continuity, for history one and indivisible, one continuous, continuing process. In this condition we encounter our greatest difficulties, and it is here that we have made the least progress.

The first difficulty is that of reducing the characteristics of the one continuous, continuing process to proportions that fall within the limits of school time and school intelligence. Here the French have, I think, in their program of 1902, succeeded beyond any other people. They have succeeded because eminently competent French historians had the courage really to face the problem and a sense of its importance which held them to years of devoted labor. One of them remarked in Paris in 1904 that he had deliberately turned aside from special research and given twenty years to the task of tracing for school boys "the principal transformations of humanity." No mind of equal training, equipment and power has as yet given itself for any such period to the task in the United States. The occasion has scarcely arisen. We have been talking and thinking of subjects in history, and not of courses in history.

The second difficulty is that presented by our system of school organization and administration. Pure democracy and undefiled in American public education has meant until recently a common opportunity for eight years of study that scarcely looked beyond the elementary school, followed abruptly by a common opportunity for four years of additional study that looked chiefly to the entrance requirements for college. By this scheme secondary education has been postponed two years beyond the usual period in Europe, and invidious distinctions in the elementary school between pupils with and pupils without high school prospects, and in the high school between pupils with and pupils without college prospects have been avoided. The principle in the elementary school has been that what is good enough for the majority is good enough for the minority, and in the high school that what is good enough for the minority is good enough for the majority. In consequence of this system of organization we have been forced in the elementary school to shape programs for those who expect to drop out, and in the high school we have been held to subjects prescribed or accepted for entrance to college. Where under such a system is the place, and where the inspiration, for continuity of historical study?

The junior high school movement promised at first

some measure of relief. It looked for a time as if we might plan a related course in history extending throughout the six years of the elementary school and the three years of the junior high school. It even looked for a time as if we might base the work in the senior high school upon the nine years of preparation below. But the prospect is now changing. In system after system organized on the 6-3-3 plan the edict has gone forth that we can have at most two years for history in the junior high school, with American history in any case the one indispensable subject, and that in the senior high school we must continue to meet college entrance requirements. As for the six years of the elementary school, we are reminded that conditions for history must for the present be so adjusted as to admit freely of the transfer of pupils from six-year elementary schools to eight-year elementary schools, and from eight-year elementary schools to six-year elementary schools. We thus appear to have gained for history three independent, unrelated units in place of the former two.

We cannot of course escape altogether the limitations imposed by our system of school organization. But between the difficulty due to these limitations and the difficulty created by the principle of continuity itself there is, I suspect, some relation. It is true that teachers of history have been occupied with subjects in history because school administrators have not left room for courses in history. It is also true that school administrators have not left room for courses in history because teachers of history have been occupied with subjects in history. The question of initial responsibility for this situation might be worth a quarrel. But teachers of history need not begin it. It is enough for them to admit that neither they nor school administrators have given really anxious thought to the significance of continuity in history programs, and that neither they nor school administrators have developed the kind of conviction that has been developed in Europe. This limitation at least can be removed.

Here, in my judgment, is the point at which our attack must begin. Do we really believe that a course in history is desirable? Have we any consistent principles that we are ready to apply? I have tried this morning to set forth the principles which have gradually unfolded themselves for me in the course of some years of attention to the history of history teaching. They seem to me in the light of past experiments and experiences to represent a step forward. Whether they are so regarded or not; whether they are worthy of consideration or not, some body of principles we must have if we are to have a course in history. The alternative is the confusion which has reigned from the beginning in the teaching of history in the United States, and which still reigns.

In the ends to be sought by a course in history we are in part on old, familiar ground. We want to understand the present. We want to understand ourselves in the community and in the nation. We want to understand American ideals and American institutions. We want to be made efficient socialized Americans of the twentieth century. But we want to be

made also efficient partners in the grand enterprise of co-operating with the rest of the human race.

In closing, may I venture to suggest to those who are irrevocably committed to other ways of dealing with history, and especially to those who, on principle, do not believe in principles, that certain comments which have doubtless occurred to them have already been applied to most of the plans now actually in force and have grown so familiar that anyone bold enough to face an audience like this may be presumed to have given them his earnest consideration. I have, I assure you, been reminded beyond any possibility of forgetting that college professors are ignorant of school conditions; that teachers of history are sometimes incompetent, usually untrained, and always overworked; that children in the elementary school have immature minds; that boys and girls in the high school are adolescents; that colleges have entrance requirements; that the curriculum is crowded; that the time for history is short, and that, after all, it is not the course in history that matters; it is not the idea of development; it is not the idea of continuity; it is the personality of the teacher. On the one point that does matter I pause merely to remark that those who have personality—and it is always the other teacher who has not—should thank the Lord, and that those who have it not should pray for personality but not expect too much.

**THE CHAIRMAN:** The discussion of this very significant and, to us, vitally important and interesting paper, will be begun by Prof. R. M. Tryon, of the University of Chicago. Those who are to take part in the discussion whose names are on the program, will be limited to ten minutes. I hope that thereafter we may have a large number of pertinent discussions, limited to five minutes.

**MR. TRYON:** Mr. Chairman and fellow teachers: I want to say in the beginning that I thoroughly believe in a course idea as advocated by Professor Johnson, and I also thoroughly believe that that idea will in time be injected into the history work done in our public schools. If this great association would take this matter up with enthusiasm definite results would soon follow. For the truth of this statement one needs but to look to what the Association has accomplished in the past along this line. The chaotic state in which we find ourselves at the present time regarding history in the elementary and high schools, is very similar to that found by the Committee of Seven nearly twenty years ago. At that time we were organizing new schools, we were perfecting the eighth grade, we were commissioning new high schools with courses four years in duration. No one seemed to know what history to teach in these rapidly growing high schools. At the opportune time the report of the Committee of Seven appeared; this report brought order out of chaos. Whether or not we now agree to the order it brought, the fact remains that it did bring order, and if you will study the statistics of history in the high schools, say ten years after this committee made its report, you will be amazed at its widespread influence.



The Committee of Eight referred to by Professor Johnson had similar influence on the course of study in the elementary schools. While it has been less than ten years since that report came to the public, its influence has been felt throughout the country. Its influence, no doubt, would continue to be felt through another decade were it not for the fact that the organization of the elementary school for which it was planned is being displaced by an organization to which the report does not seem to be adapted. This fact makes it very urgent that this association again attack the history program and bring some order out of the chaotic condition in which we now find ourselves. As Professor Johnson suggests, when we upset the eight-year idea and substitute a six-year elementary school, we might say that we have overthrown the report of the Committee of Eight, however good it might have been. We have overthrown, in a measure, the report of the Committee of Seven when we substitute a three-year high school course for a four-year high school course, and when we inject the junior high school of three years between the elementary grades and the senior high school, we have a new organization which was provided for neither in the report of the Committee of Seven, nor in the report of the Committee of Eight, so we are facing a situation which we must immediately get under control. I think the American Historical Association should assume the leadership in adjusting the history program to these new organizations. There is danger of its losing the leadership at the present time. What is needed is an early realization that we are confronted by conditions unknown to the Committees of Seven and Eight, and that we must make a history program to meet these new conditions. The Association need not be autocratic in its suggestions. The truth of the matter is, I feel, that we cannot put this thing over by being autocratic about it. I think that we must take our friends, the educational psychologists, the educational sociologists and the educational administrators into our confidence. We must realize that there is a conflict between the opinions they hold and those held by us. I have jotted down a few of these conflicts as I see them at the present time. I have put on one side the historians who are to-day thinking about a course in history, and the psychologists, the sociologists and educational administrators on the other. Here are some of the conflicting opinions: The historians believe in history for its own sake while the educational psychologists, sociologists and administrators believe in history for the sake of the child. To them the child is the center of gravity, therefore everything must be turned in its direction; courses of study do not matter, subjects do not matter, but the child—in it all our interests must lie. Again, historians believe in the chronological method of approach and the logical development of the subject; while on the other hand the educational psychologists, sociologists and administrators care little about chronological approach and logical development. Furthermore, the historians insist that we must have a whole story, that the history of the United States, for example, must begin at the beginning and

the story must be told logically from 1492 right down to the present time. On the other hand, the educational psychologists, sociologists and administrators have little interest in this complete story. They say begin at the present if you like, or in the middle and go in any direction you choose. The historians also believe that there must be a rather detailed view of a period or epoch; the other folks say that a general view in most cases is sufficient. And finally the historians claim that one cannot understand the present until one knows and understands the past. The educators tell us that the important thing is to understand the present, and if the past will help, well and good, but we should start with the present and then if there is anything in the past that we need, we can go back and bring it to view. I could go on and enumerate other conflicting opinions relating to history in schools held by the historians and the educators, but this seems unnecessary. I have mentioned enough for you to see the trend of affairs at the present time. It is to be regretted that Professor Johnson cannot continue at the head of our committee. He is the second chairman of this committee whom we have lost; we are drifting along, unfortunately, but of course, we cannot help these changes, but it seems to me that we should take this thing in hand soon and get to work. It is not a little job, it is a big job. Four or five of us cannot get together and propose a program. The work of the Committee of Seven has amounted to something because the members devoted four or five years to the work; that is why its work has been so influential. The major portion of the time of someone must be spent in working out a program to meet the conditions that we are facing at this time. I think this committee needs the services of a paid secretary to take charge of this work. This would make possible a thorough survey of present-day conditions in order to find out what all classes of educators are thinking and a number of places are doing. Our committee would then be able to propose a real program to the educational psychologists, sociologists and administrators, a program based on facts as well as opinions; a program which would be well received because of the method employed in its construction. To make such a program is the next step which I think this association should take and bring it to completion as soon as possible.

**THE CHAIRMAN:** The discussion will be continued by Dr. A. M. Wolfson, of the High School of Commerce, New York City.

**DOCTOR WOLFSON:** Mr. Chairman, ladies and gentlemen: The way my name appears in this program indicates, in part at least, the way in which I have been rapidly changing my point of view in the course of a past three or four years. Professor Tryon spoke of the difference in point of view between the historians and the educational administrators and educational psychologists. When I was in the DeWitt Clinton High School I was perhaps a historian; certainly a history teacher. Since then I have perhaps changed my point of view; certainly I have become an educational administrator, maybe an educational psychol-

ogist. I am interested now in the history course as part of a general curriculum in a high school, whether it be in an academic high school or in a technical high school such as the High School of Commerce. I believe from watching the boys and girls in high schools that our course of study must be fashioned so that while it is in progress it will meet the present interests of the boys and girls; so that when it is completed, it will meet their interest as citizens of the United States; in that far I am, in spite of Professor Johnson's assertions, a strong believer in using current events as part of the high school course.

A year ago I had something to say on that subject, and I tried to make plain then, as I wish to make plain now, my point of view. I do not believe in abandoning all text-books in history, in forgetting Greece and Rome and medieval Europe, in starting with the answer that was made a day or two ago by the Teutonic allies to the Russian proposal for peace, but I do believe there must be in our course something of what is going on in Austria and Germany and Russia, if we are to keep our history in close touch with the lives of the children. I should say then, that primarily our course of study must be made with the present interests of our children constantly in mind. So far, you see, I am an educational psychologist rather than a historian.

The thing that is distressing to me as an educational administrator is the fact that when I walk into the room of a history teacher I am apt to find the boys discussing, for example, the early history of England, the period of the Roman occupation and the conversion of the Anglo-Saxons to Christianity, and I am almost certain to find them reproducing word for word the same stories that they told when they were in the sixth and seventh grades in the elementary schools. There is, in other words, no differentiation in our work between the elementary school attack and the high school attack. Our children get the same thing over and over again. I wish that someone would work out a course of study so that boys and girls who studied English history or American history in the elementary schools, should, when they come to study these subjects in the high school, at least study them from a different point of view.

Perhaps because I have, in the past few years, been associated with a special type of school, with a commercial high school rather than the general high school, I have become more and more convinced that one way out of the present difficulty is to adjust our causes to the different needs of the different types of pupils. I should like to see in the High School of Commerce, for example, an attack of our problem from the point of view of commercial development. I believe that our boys would get incidentally a larger understanding of the political development of the nation if they made their attack from the point of view of the history of commerce. Similarly, I believe that in the industrial high school the course of study should approach history from the point of view of industrial development. In conclusion I should like to take up, just for a moment, a somewhat unrelated topic. Pro-

fessor Johnson, in his address, referred to the necessity that appears at the present time of inculcating Americanism and American patriotism in our teaching of history. I have not been convinced thus far that the doing of this thing consciously will result in the ends that most of us have in view. I am still convinced that what I believed, and what most of this audience believed five or ten years ago about the purpose of our history teaching, that it was to inculcate historical-mindedness and understanding of the past, and of the relation of nations in the past without regard to an emphasis upon American accomplishment and American ideals, is still here, I believe in the long run we shall serve our purposes best and that we shall be able to inculcate in our students a true Americanism if we continue our attempt to understand what were the things that led to temporary hostilities between the American colonists and the men in England, what were the things that led to the American Revolution, without attempting to gloss over the misunderstanding in England of American purposes. If we continue to teach the American Revolution, for example, as we have always taught it, we shall, I believe, perform the miracle in the future that we performed in the past; we shall make of boys and girls born in Germany, in Poland, in Austria, in Russia, in France, or in Italy, at the end of ten years of schooling, good Americans. I do not believe that it would be wise for us to abandon, in the stress of war times, all the things that we stood for for so many years before the war came.

THE CHAIRMAN: The discussion will be continued by Professor Henry E. Bourne, of the Western Reserve University.

PROFESSOR BOURNE: Mr. Chairman, ladies and gentlemen: I want to say just a word or two about some of the aims of the Committee of Eight, if I may be pardoned, having been a member of the committee. The Committee of Eight set out to do the things which Professor Johnson has commended—that is, to introduce a course of study in history in the elementary schools. What we had in mind was this program I have in my hand, that is, the French program of 1902. There were difficulties which Professor Johnson realizes quite as well and better than I. One of the difficulties was the fact that the committee could not obtain a block of four years for the course, including the fifth, sixth, seventh and eighth grades. That was our original plan. But the superintendents on our committee held that so many pupils leave at the end of the fifth grade that it was absolutely necessary to have a course in American history, treated according to the biographical method, in the fifth grade. We were accordingly restricted to a block of three years. This increased the difficulty of the problem.

Undoubtedly our solution of the problem is open to improvement, but it is true that wherever the plan of the Committee of Eight has been introduced the schools are working consciously, or unconsciously, upon the principle commended by Professor Johnson.

In the construction of the program I want to point out one or two difficulties. It has been said that the French program in history embodies a study of the



development of humanity rather than a study of the history of France. However, if we look at the program for the first cycle we find that the first year of the four is devoted to ancient history, but that the bulk of the material for the second year is drawn from French history. The French have the advantage that the history of their country illustrates the development of civilization better, perhaps, than does the history of any other country. From the Roman Empire down, their history may be treated as the nucleus about which the experience of the rest of the world is grouped. Not so with us. Although our civilization, being European, is as ancient as theirs, it is not until we reach the period of the discoveries that we seem to be on American ground. This complicates the problem of the continuous course.

THE CHAIRMAN: The next discussion is by Professor Herbert D. Foster, Dartmouth College.

PROFESSOR FOSTER: Among the admirable features of Professor Johnson's comprehensive conspectus was the way in which he forestalled criticisms by mentioning them himself and sweeping them aside. His excellently planned structure is well adapted to a siege, for he has left us exits rather than entrances; his castle has sally ports for himself, but no drawbridge let down for our attack.

He has mentioned the schemes of educational sociologists and psychologists, but are we sufficiently on guard against the uneducated *sociologist*? While he was speaking I found among my mail an appeal which took for granted that a teacher of history could, without hesitation, reel off "a list of a few of the most comprehensive books with which you are acquainted," giving "a short outline study of the religious beliefs of the world; also the beliefs of men in the Stone Age, which I take to be the condition of the American Indians and of the African Negroes when the whites came first in contact with them." Is it any less absurd to expect a teacher in the secondary school to develop historical-mindedness and a reasonable amount of intellectual modesty while fox-trotting with her pupils over most of the surface of the earth in a single year?

However we may differ as to how long a period we should cover, can we not agree to recognize manifest limitations of time, maturity, and natural interest and join in trying to help teacher and pupil in differentiating the essential from the unessential? When I sit down to talk over with a boy or girl a considerable block of a book say like Green's *Short History of the English People*, I realize what a body of material there is that the young reader could not be expected to note or long remember, and how difficult it is for him to recognize the important things. The difficulty of the enormous body of material facing the immature pupil appears even more clearly when one looks at even the most carefully prepared papers for the examining of secondary school pupils. The stretch of time, the variety of books, the range of topics are so tremendous that there is obvious need of some approach to a consensus of opinion as to what should be emphasized and what may be neglected. Only through elimination, selection, and emphasis can teacher and

pupil win time for some degree of thoroughness, and opportunity for real training through enlightening questions and problems such as Professor Johnson has suggested in his book and his address. Such selection and elimination cannot be done solely by a single writer or teacher, or dictated to all and sundry in cast-iron form by any committee representative of only one stage of teaching. Such a piece of work, to command confidence and prove workable, must be somewhat elastic and must be the product of co-operation, and not of contention, or exploitation.

If we are to work out a generally acceptable plan, teachers in elementary schools, secondary schools and colleges must pool their knowledge and experience. Through such consensus of opinion as to what should be and what has proved to be worth while teaching, we can arrive at some agreement as to what should be emphasized, so that to other topics the relieved teacher may devote as much or as little time as his own judgment approves. If this Association, through its Committee on History in Schools, could co-operate with the committees of the various history teachers' associations who have already given time and thought to this plan, and then say to teachers, "we feel, having gone over the field together, that certain things prove to be fundamental, and you can afford to take time to teach these essential things well," then teachers and pupil would have a certain freedom from the feeling they must cover, as of equal importance, everything mentioned in the text-book. Teachers would then feel a certain freedom to take up other topics in which they are especially interested or in which they find pupils taking keen interest; for they would find time for such matters of local or personal interest because relieved of the burden of the *omnium gatherum* of Father Time, and able to pass over altogether some of the antiquities in the rag bag, or make any passing use they may wish of the eventually negligible. Whatever your committee may do, however comprehensive and ambitious its program, this marking out of consensus of opinion as to what is essential and deserving of emphasis in the various fields of history is vital to any report.

It was the demand for something of this sort on the part of both school and college teachers, expressed repeatedly at conferences of the American Historical Association, at meetings of history teachers' associations from New England to California, and through replies to questionnaires that gave this Committee on History in Schools its existence and its primary object.<sup>1</sup> A comparatively brief list of essential topics to be emphasized (not an elaborate syllabus) together with lists of topics for collateral reading, such as was asked for by replies from teachers in secondary schools and in colleges, might be used in the testing of pupils at the close of a school course or at their entrance to

<sup>1</sup> The origin and purpose of the movement, with analysis of 412 replies from teachers, may be found in THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE, June, 1916, pp. 191-193. Ninety-two per cent. of those replying to the specific question favored a list of "essential main topics, with little or no sub-divisions, which certainly ought to be included and emphasized."

college. Is it fanciful to think that possibly such lists of topics and examinations based on such lists and given by the school might help to speed the day when school and college might unite in recognizing the great value of a written examination given by the school on the basis of material agreed upon by consensus of school and college teachers? It should, however, be always remembered that the matter of college entrance is not and has not been the main object of this committee. It is of course only one of the things to be considered in the problem of the continuous teaching of history.

As in the matter of topics to be treated there must be some range for individuality and locality, so in programs why should we not frankly recognize that alongside an ideal program of courses for all schools (if we only had some central authority to carry it through as in France) we should take into consideration differences of conditions and aims and background? We have a multitude of educational authorities in different parts of the country, and entirely different kinds of schools. There is the ordinary high school, the technical and commercial high, the junior and the senior high schools, the private schools and the historic endowed academies. Then there are existing and well established courses that should be recognized as such and entitled to definition, whatever new courses may be hoped for. In 1914 Professor Johnson, in his excellent book on the *Teaching of History*, reports he found out of 600 schools only 10 per cent. entirely neglecting the epoch-making report of the Committee on Seven; 85 per cent. offered ancient history; 79 per cent. American history; 76 per cent. European, and 58 per cent. English history. American history was required in 63 per cent. of the schools, ancient history in 59 per cent. A school unable to give four years of history and trying to map out three years might naturally give two years to European and one to American history. The difficulty here is as to how far to go in the first year and still do work that is really historical and not merely perfunctory and uneducational. Could we not say to schools, "If you are giving a four-year course as recommended by the Committee of Seven and the Committee of Five, or the slightly modified four-year course suggested by the Committee of Five, continue to give these if satisfactory; or if you can give but three and are omitting the English (save as included in the European) continue to do so if the plan works well. If the ordinary high school can give but two years, one of these would inevitably be American and the other would probably be in the majority of schools with little interest in ancient and more interest in later times, a year in medieval and modern history, with emphasis on the modern period. On the other hand, where there is a natural interest in the classics and ancient civilization why not make use of that environment and interest? Why should precisely the same selection of courses be made for the high school in Sleepy Eye, Dawn (in Darke County, Ohio), and in the Roxbury Latin School and the Phillips Academy, Exeter? Why not teach thoroughly Greek and Latin civilization through both language and history courses, in schools with a

sound historical background of appreciation of that civilization, where pupils can be led to understand and take interest in what they really know something about? That would give real knowledge and vital training. The quality of the knowledge and the training is more important than a uniformity which would have all pupils study the same period whatever the background and equipment of the school. We may well remember that England's cabinets have largely been drawn from the men who have been trained not merely in the classical languages, but in the politics, social life and problems of Greek and Latin states, with that constant comparison with modern civilization which the well-read teacher and the reading and thinking pupil shall make. Quite different would be the environment and intellectual stimulus of the technical high school, or perhaps of a school in a town that had been lately founded where interest would lie in more modern lines.

In any case let us try to co-operate in helping schools not to attempt more than they can do well. Let us give all the enthusiasm and intelligence we can to helping teachers and pupils in history to do something well, so that they may know the difference between the thing that is and the thing that is not, recognize the difference between knowing and guessing, and be ready to do their part not merely in making the world safe for democracy but in making democracy safe for the world.

In the general discussion which followed, many of those present took part. Mr. Mims urged that caution be used in preparing a program or set of topics for history classes. He feared teachers and pupils would adopt a policy of memorizing a body of classified knowledge; the mind would be made a "phonographic record instead of an organ of digestion as the good Lord intended it to be."

Mr. Moore described the work of the Indiana committee on history teaching. The state law requires all high school students to take one year in American history. The committee recommended, and the State Board of Education has adopted a two-year course, composed of (1) general history down to 1715, and (2) recent history not only of Europe, but also of the United States since 1715.

Conditions in New York state were described by Dr. A. C. Flick, a member of the committee on the history course in that state. Mr. Flick said they hoped to obtain a three-year course, one of which must be American history. If the three years in history are granted, the committee will probably recommend the following: (1) Ancient and European history to about 1750; (2) European history from the world standpoint since 1750; (3) American history and civics also from the world point of view. If only two years can be obtained, the first will be ancient and European history to 1750, and the second, American history with the world point of view in mind.

Miss Tall spoke from the standpoint of the elementary school administrative official. She believed the elementary schools would welcome a program in his-

tory, but she felt that the course must be made very definite if it is to be adopted by grade teachers. Elementary teachers know exactly what is expected of them in geography, arithmetic, and language. Their work in history, to be successful, must be made equally specific and detailed.

Considerable discussion was provoked by a reference to the proposed work of the Committee on the Teaching of History of the American Historical Association. It was the general sentiment that the Association should take the lead in any necessary reorganization of the history curriculum. Many expressions of regret were voiced that Professor Johnson should, on account of ill-health, be compelled to give up the chairmanship of the committee, and it was the general hope that he would find time and strength to assist the committee in an advisory capacity. A proposal that the Council of the Association be requested to furnish the committee with funds to pay for clerical assistance was not adopted owing to the condition of the treasury of the Association.

## Periodical Literature

EDITED BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS,  
PH.D.

"Spain and the Great War," by T. N. Pardo de Tavera, in the January *Century*, portrays the Spanish situation very clearly. The hatred for England, France and the United States, the successful machinations of the German propaganda, bad economic conditions, a pro-ally government, tottering on its foundations, and out of sympathy with people, have all made for a powerful pro-German sympathy among the masses of the unthinking and ignorant, the disgruntled clergy, the ambitious but conservative autocracy and the Germanophile Spanish army. This policy, however, is likely to be forcibly changed, which will result in economic if not militaristic aid to the allies. The situation as presented in this article is well worth careful study.

"Extracts from Lady Kennard's Diary and Letters," which are to be published shortly in book form in this country, present a vivid picture of Roumania's entrance into and participation in the war. "Lady Kennard is the daughter of the British Minister to Roumania" is the editor's note to "A Roumanian Diary," by Lady Kennard in the January *North American*. The extracts begin with August, 1916, and go—with many lapses of entries—to June, 1917. A reading of even these fragments intensifies one's respect for the little Balkan kingdom.

"The Italian Reverse," by Julius M. Price, and "Some Consequences of the Italian Failure" in the December *Fortnightly*, deserve favorable mention. The former article is decidedly pessimistic in its tone, although the author does not doubt that she will win eventually; while the author of the second article uses this incident to prove that "a democracy is not successful in war, that a board of amateur politicians acting collectively is bound to be inefficient, improvident and slow in action, and that the co-operation of the various political boards representing the Allied States is almost impossible."

The January number of *Johns Hopkins University Studies* is "The Standard of Living in Japan," by Kokichi Morimoto, Associate Professor of Economics in Tohoku Imperial University.

Stephen Simeon publishes a translation called "The Death of the Cenci in Rome: A Contemporary Manuscript," in the December *Nineteenth Century*, which purports to be the manuscript Shelley used in his tragedy. The account is full of interest to students of sixteenth-century Italy.

In the January number of the *Yale Review*, Professor Wilbur C. Abbott publishes an article on "Cossack or Republican?" in which he discusses modern European conditions in relation to Napoleon's famous prophecy that "in a century Europe would be all Cossack or all Republican." One important consideration presented is that "the present government of Germany threw away the greatest opportunity for world domination which any power ever had. The German people seemed in a fair way to conquer us all by their marvelous organization, their patient industry, their scientific efficiency. . . . They had established new standards of national and state existence of which the army was one manifestation, and the economic organization was the other."

One of the best articles on the taking of Jerusalem is that in the January number of *Current History*, by W. T. Massey, British War Correspondent, in his account, "The British Conquest of Palestine," a diary containing the results of his personal experience and observation.

"America's Armada in the Making," by Edward Hungerford in the January *Harper's*, gives a vivid idea of what has been accomplished after many difficulties by the American government toward the creation of a navy.

A. Maurice Low's "Problem of the French Canadian" in the January *Review of Reviews*, is the study of a curious national problem of a people who "whether the almost illiterate peasant or the man of education has no passionate attachment for France and no burning fervor for Canada. . . . If he has any pride, it is a stubborn pride in not speaking English and in encouraging his children to scorn England. . . . He accepts the British flag and British rule, but remains a French Canadian instead of a Canadian of Canada."

Robert Lincoln Kelley's article on "The American College and the War" (January *Scribner's*), is a study of the transformation which has come over the American college as a phase of the present social revolution. Of especial interest are the facts he presents of war-time work and the credit the new Americanism should pay to the American college.

### CURRENT PERIODICAL ARTICLES ON THE TEACHING OF HISTORY.

By W. L. HALL, SUBLIBRARIAN IN HISTORY, NEW YORK STATE LIBRARY.

- Composition for 5 B (history topics). Teachers' monographs, XXIV (December, 1917), 113-114, 128.
- Gathany, J. Madison. Weekly outline study of current history. *The Outlook*.
- Herson, O. Psychology and the high school curriculum. The New educational foundations, XXIX (December, 1917), 218-223.
- New interest in studying history. *Literary Digest*, LV (December 1, 1917), 35-36.
- New Jersey. Department of public instruction. The teaching of geography, history and civics. June, 1917. 218 pp.
- Notes on history 6 A. Teachers' monographs, XXIV (December, 1917), 115-116, 128.



# A Producing Class in Hispanic-American History

BY PROFESSOR CHARLES E. CHAPMAN, UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA.

One of the inevitable results of taking up the teaching of history as a profession is the hopeless conviction that there are a thousand things, both in research and in class work, that one wishes were done, that one would like to do himself, but that for lack of time he never does. On the one hand, it takes years of persistent effort to turn out even a little in the way of independent investigation; on the other, it takes time, as well as intelligence and personality, to be a success as a teacher. Unwilling to slight either phase of his work, the writer recently decided to make an experiment to see if he might in a measure combine both. The use of the seminar as an institution of utility to both teacher and pupils is a familiar one, but the writer proposed to employ an undergraduate class in a task which he hoped would prove worth while for the public at large and of educational value for the pupils.

The project he had in mind was a bibliographical one. The accumulation of bibliographical data is very largely mechanical, although in the final analysis it involves such niceties and such painstaking accuracy as may well puzzle the keenest intellect. The first problem was what should he select as a field for the work. This was easily solved. As a teacher of Hispanic American<sup>1</sup> history he was able to think of scores of things which never had been done, and which never would be, unless the combination of a millionaire and a scholar or else some such plan as the writer had in mind should be adopted. He necessarily had to devise something which could be carried out with the tools at hand in the library of the University of California, but there were ample materials there for any one of a number of tasks. In particular, there was a very good library of periodical literature, and the writer decided to make a bibliography of the articles about Hispanic America.

To carry out this plan, he could count on a class of about sixty persons, most of them university juniors and seniors of the average type. It is hardly necessary to say that such human material, however intelligent *per se* and however promising, would have neither the information nor the standards of care and accuracy to approach the work planned for them without a great deal of instruction and thorough-going supervision. It was equally obvious that the writer himself could not give the necessary time to attend in entirety to this phase of the work. He therefore selected one of his best pupils of the year before and spent an entire summer in training her for the post of bibliographical assistant. Miss Doris Bepler, of

San Francisco, the young woman in question, was chosen, not only because of her brilliant scholastic record and her keen intellectuality, but also because she seemed to be fitted by temperament to deal harmoniously and efficiently with university students. The event has proved the wisdom of this selection; the original idea and the appointment of Miss Bepler have been the principal contributions of the writer to what may now be fairly characterized as a successful project.

Miss Bepler and the writer worked out the details as to what was wanted, how the materials should be entered and how the class was to be handled. An extensive account of this part of the project is not necessary here, but something, at least, should be said. Hispanic America was delimited to include the following: All lands south of the United States, not only those where Portuguese and Spanish are spoken, but also all other regions, especially those of the Caribbean area, since they are closely connected with the more narrowly Hispanic countries; all lands within the United States proper (that is, exclusive of the Philippines) which were once under Spanish rule, but only for the period when they belonged to Spain. It was decided to make three types of entry, each of them to be arranged, ultimately, in alphabetical order. The first of these, the author entry, was to be the most important. As will be seen from the example given below, this was to contain: the author's name; the title of the article; an indication of the place where it was to be found; the number of words, maps and illustrations; and a description, calculated to supplement the title, indicating the content and point of view of the article, based on a reading thereof by the student. The style of the author card is the result of a study of the methods suggested by Cutter's "Rules for a Dictionary Catalogue" and those employed by the Library of Congress. Special attention is called to the care which has been taken in the use of punctuation, spacing, etc. Consistency of form has been rigidly adhered to.

## TYPICAL AUTHOR ENTRY.

Lummis, Charles F[letcher]. *Awakening of a nation*, in *Harper's Monthly*, v. XCIV, no. 561, p. 365; v. XCIV, no. 562, p. 498; v. XCIV, no. 563, p. 741. Feb.-Apr., 1897. 30,500 words. 42 illus.

A series of articles dealing with the cities of Mexico, the economic conditions of that country, and the career of Porfirio Diaz.

(30-17-45)

<sup>1</sup> The term "Hispanic American" is used to denote both the area of Spanish American and Portuguese American influence, on the analogy that the Roman Hispania covered the entire Iberian Peninsula. This definition of "Hispanic" has been accepted by the "Hispanic American Historical Review," recently founded.

Subject cards referring to the author entry were to be made out, one or more, as the case might require. For the above author entry the following subject cards were made:



Díaz, Porfirio,  
Mexico, cities of,  
Mexico, economic conditions in,

The preparation of the periodical entry was to be left as a task of the special assistant. She was to work up the technical data with regard to each periodical and the state of its files in the library of the University of California, giving critical comment as to the nature of the periodical, especially as concerns its relation to the Hispanic American field, and, perhaps, indicating the articles of that periodical included in the bibliography. Eventually, each author entry was to receive a serial number, beginning at 1 with the first author in the A's and ending at the last of the Z's. References to the author list in the subject and periodical alphabets were to be by these numbers. Such, in brief, was the plan. Naturally, there were a great many subordinate details, such, for example, as the puzzling question of the determination of authorship. It required ten mimeographed pages to set down what were considered to be the bare essentials of the project, and a copy was prepared for each member of the class. Meanwhile, the rules decided upon had been tested in practice by Miss Bepler and assignments of periodicals had been prepared by her for the expected number of pupils. It was also arranged that she should keep office hours for conferences with students, two hours a day, five days a week. Matters were at this stage when the class was enrolled, in August, 1917.

The work of the class in making bibliographical cards was made optional, replacing the customary term paper and most of the usual assignment of reading. An intimation was also given that the number and the nature of the cards would be taken into consideration in making up term grades. Every member of the class chose to undertake the bibliographical work. Cards were to be turned in weekly. The first two weeks were a period of instruction, during which the cards submitted were of little value, but there was enthusiastic interest from the very beginning. The work itself was different from any the students had ever been called upon to do; it proved to be fascinating to them to look over old periodicals, which they had rarely had occasion to use before, and never with such thoroughness; few courses had ever been so insistent on entire accuracy according to a prescribed form, and the very precision and care required proved to be mentally stimulating; and gradually the idea dawned, more and more, that they were doing not merely a class exercise, but something useful. These ideas have been maintained throughout the term, and the last of them has grown to unexpectedly great proportions. A distinct sense of responsibility has developed, and the class as a whole has been keenly interested in the possibility of publishing its results. The news seems to have gone abroad in the university, for a number of student reporters have sought to interview the writer, who put them off with the statement that he wished to see whether the project would prove successful before he gave out anything to the press, student or otherwise.

Many changes were found to be necessary in course of the work. The inducement held out to get students to turn in large numbers of cards proved unwise, for the cards suffered as a result of too great haste. So it was arranged that the only criterion of judgment would be the general excellence of the work. This proved very easy to ascertain, for in no form of work that the writer has ever assigned to a class have the abilities and the sincerity of the students been more clearly manifested. It early became evident that Miss Bepler could not possibly examine all of the cards turned in; from the first day of the term to the last her office hours were almost completely occupied in conferences, with the result that there was little time left for other work. Furthermore, it soon appeared to be the part of wisdom to check over every card by going to the article itself. The members of the class were therefore divided into three groups according to the aptitude and diligence they had shown. About a third of the class, whose work had proved to be trustworthy, were assigned to the business of checking over the cards already turned in. They went to the magazines themselves, entered pertinent articles which had been omitted, and corrected the entries of their predecessor, paying special attention to the accuracy of the descriptive paragraph. A group of ten students who had shown exceptional ability were made assistants to Miss Bepler, aiding her in conference work, but having the special duty of correcting the cards as to form, with particular attention to the use of clear, accurate English in the descriptive paragraph. In case of any doubt with regard to particular sets of cards, these students would go themselves to the periodicals or have the cards re-assigned for correction. Less important tasks were assigned to the third group. As a further incentive to good work, each member of the class was given a number, and, as in the case of the typical author entry given in this article, an indication was made on each card of the three persons who had worked upon it. If the results are ever published, the names of the students, with their numbers, will appear in the preface. In addition, it should be remembered that Miss Bepler and the writer will eventually go over all of the cards; to a certain extent, they have done so already. Thus at least five persons will have handled each card. Both Miss Bepler and the writer have given frequent assistance in specific cases, and the latter has probably averaged to use at least ten minutes of every lecture hour in going over matters of general interest about the bibliographical work.

What have been the bibliographical results? The first half year's work was confined to the United States periodicals. Out of 165 investigated, about 2000 items were found which were deemed worthy of entry. The questions might arise: What is the value of this list? Do not all of the items appear in "Poole's Index" or the "Reader's Guide"? To answer the latter first, the present bibliography is based not only on those periodicals used in the above-named publications, but also on others which would be apt to yield more richly in this particular field. It is

exceedingly doubtful if the total number of articles thus far recorded in existing guides to periodical literature contain more than a tenth part of the items already gathered by the members of the writer's class. The answer to the first question involves that of the importance of Hispanic American studies. This is not the place to argue that Hispanic America is becoming more and more vital as an element in our national interests. Few will deny, however, that it would be well worth our while to know more of Hispanic America than we now know. For the study of Hispanic America, this bibliography offers the very great advantage of having a large number of easily located items about Hispanic America in a single volume. The work on the United States periodicals is

almost completed. This coming half year it is proposed to work with the European periodicals in the University of California library. Incidentally, it would be quite possible to cumulate further entries, say every five years. The work of the present class has gone far enough so that the writer feels certain it has been a success on its productive, or bibliographical, side. Even though the work is never published, however, there is absolutely no doubt as to its educational result. Without pressure, the writer's class has done more work the past half year than any he ever had—and the best of it is, it has been done with unusual care, with a sense of responsibility and with an earnest and well-sustained enthusiasm.

## Timely Suggestions for Secondary School History

PREPARED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF FOUR COMMITTEES OF HISTORIANS IN CO-OPERATION WITH  
THE NATIONAL BOARD FOR HISTORICAL SERVICE.

### I. The Roman Empire and the Great War

BY PROFESSOR W. L. WESTERMANN, UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

The history of the past is changeless. The events of the past of mankind are done and cannot be re-enacted. History, in the sense of the narration of the past, is, however, subject to change. This change usually occurs through one of three causes. Some historical student of greater insight than his predecessors may offer a new and more satisfactory explanation of the course of events of a given historical period than has been presented before. New materials may be found, in excavations or in the search of the archives of important diplomatic centers for example, which bring to light new facts or force a re-interpretation of facts already known. And, third, in every period of progress there is a continual demand for the re-working of old historical materials in accordance with special and vital interests of new generations. New social, political or economic tendencies require that greater attention be paid to these same tendencies in the previous experience of mankind. Such changes in point of view must be met by writers and teachers of history.

In the stress of the present war, the question must arise in the mind of every alert teacher of history whether or not we now face a crisis in which the vital interests of men have suddenly changed. Is there any great progressive movement involved in the war in the light of which the teaching of history should be changed? If so, what is it? What new thing shall we emphasize? What old thing shall we drop?

For a century preceding the present war the world has been moving along a definite and rather clearly marked course toward increased participation of governed peoples in the direction of the policies, both internal and external, of the governments under which they lived. In the decade before the war, and even during the war itself, this movement has been surpris-

ingly accelerated. It seems already clear that there is no widespread desire in the world to deflect from this course. In all probability the next ten years will see an increased spread of democratic practice.

A second marked characteristic of the ante-bellum period was what may be broadly called internationalism. It includes a greater interdependence of nations in commerce and industry, and an increase of intelligent and sympathetic international co-operation in scientific and social advancement. The war has undoubtedly retarded this movement, but only superficially and temporarily. It is scarcely conceivable that there will be a reaction against internationalism. In fact, all signs point to the opposite conclusion.

Whatever may be the effect of the war upon the religious experience of the peoples involved this is not a religious war. The great Mohammedan *jihad*, the religious uprising against alien rulers, which was counted upon to aid the Teutonic allies upon the road to victory, did not materialize. In fact, religious lines are hopelessly confused. Catholic fights against Catholic, Protestant against Protestant, Mohammedan against Mohammedan. In like manner there is no great racial question involved. The yellow races fight upon the side of the Entente for reasons which are national rather than racial. The blacks have fought on either side, as they wished or as they must.

Shortly after the war began it became clear that the struggle was not, even in its essential meaning, intra-racial between two large branches of the Indo-European peoples, Slavs and Teutons. For us the war is a war against the imperialistic ambition of a people whose confidence has been grossly abused by its leaders, whose power has been as grossly misused. This Germanic ambition has been aroused, and is being exploited, in furtherance of the plans of a combina-

tion of internal German interests, class or caste interests, commercial interests, and dynastic interests. It is a deadly danger to the rest of the world, including ourselves. But it is no new thing in the world. Surely, German imperialism is not the bearer of any new and great message for the advancement of mankind.

Alive to the awakened interest in our subject, which the war has undeniably brought, how shall we teach history? More specifically, how shall we teach the history of the Roman Empire? As we have been teaching it—as honestly and objectively as we can. No one can now say what new direction the intellectual ferment occasioned by the war will take. When the new intellectual interests do appear they will assuredly be reflected in historical writing and in historical teaching.

The imperialism of the Roman Empire, embracing the period from Julius Cæsar to Constantine, offers few sound analogies with the present situation, either in the territory involved, in the causes which produced its imperialistic sway, or in its methods of control. The differences are vast and important. Augustus Cæsar left in his papers advice regarding the limitation of the Roman sphere of control. His policy was to expand the empire until a natural boundary should be reached. This was to be a defensive boundary against the barbarian outworld. Augustus' advice formed the policy which was adhered to, in the main, throughout the imperial period. Trajan's attempt at expansion in the near East was the only great change from it. In the present war there is no important question of a natural line of defense, no barbarian outworld.

An outstanding characteristic of the present war is the marked power of the modern spirit of nationalism. In the Roman world this spirit was in abeyance; among the barbarians it was undeveloped. One might

continue to point out essential differences between the political, economic and social conditions of the present day and those of the Roman Empire; differences so vital that in their light most of the analogies which might be made become either directly false or, at best, illusory. If one is tempted to liken the Roman Empire to the British Empire of to-day, let him remember and follow the Earl of Cromer's method and bring out "the more salient features which differentiate the task of the modern from that of the ancient Imperialist."

There is one event of Roman imperial history which has an actual relation to the present alignment of the allied forces in Europe. This is the conquest of Dacia by Trajan. The Roumanian tradition of descent from the Latin-speaking colonists who occupied Dacia, and Roumanian pride in its Latin tongue, no doubt, form one of the factors which explain the presence of this people, ruled by a Hohenzollern prince, in the camps of our allies. What actual weight this had, in comparison with other factors, in bringing about the Roumanian decision, it is hard to say.

The system of land holding in great estates prevalent in Hungary, so divergent from the Slavic system existing in Serbia, may be traced back to a Roman imperial origin. But many crops have been sown and harvested since Constantine's day. The Romans had their own failures and their own successes, bringing to themselves and the people who followed them good or evil, as the case might be. These we should learn to understand and judge in the light of the social and administrative difficulties then existing. For the obliteration of the free land-owning people of Serbia, the Tiszas and the other Hungarian landbarons must answer. The Roman emperors and the Roman land system are not responsible.

## II. The Monroe Doctrine and the War<sup>1</sup>

BY PROFESSOR CARL BECKER, CORNELL UNIVERSITY.

In one sense at least it may be said that we are entering the Great War as a united people. Nearly every one says, "There was nothing else we could do." Nevertheless, in the minds of many, probably in the minds of a majority, this very common expression implies that it is too bad we could not have done "something else;" too bad, that is, not only because it is always unfortunate to have to wage war, but because for the United States to wage war in Europe means a sharp reversal of our traditional policy; a complete renunciation of that long-established principle of action commonly known as the Monroe Doctrine. While we accept this renunciation willingly enough as a necessity, and some accept it gladly, most of us doubtless accept it with regret, as the lesser of two evils, and probably most of us have been somewhat at a loss to know what could be the meaning of

President Wilson's statement that in entering the war we are not really renouncing but only extending the Monroe Doctrine. The average hard-headed citizen has doubtless said to himself, "That is only one of Mr. Wilson's fine phrases, an expression of his idealism."

If the Monroe Doctrine means no more than it seems on the surface to mean, President Wilson's statement is indeed only a phrase, and not a very fine one at that. Superficially interpreted, the Monroe Doctrine seems to mean that since we are isolated and provincial in a geographical sense, we will be so politically. Possessed of a rich and easily defended country, we will ask no favors of Europe and will concede her none. "What have we to do with abroad?" Nothing. We mind our business, and respectfully ask Europe to mind hers. We are in the fortunate position of little Jack Horner; having got, by our own efforts and the favor of Providence, an excellent Christmas pie, we have only to sit in our corner and

<sup>1</sup> Reprint from the *Minnesota History Bulletin*, Vol. 2, No. 2.



eat it. Now and then, for the edification of less happy peoples, we may very well pull out a plum and say: "Do you see? This is our plum. You eat your plum and we will eat our plum; but you must agree, since we have got such a fine one, that we are a very superior people." Now Mr. Wilson, whether his purpose be to get some of Europe's plum or only to give her some of ours, is clearly asking us to give up this attitude. He require us to come out of our corner.

It is possible, however, that our motives in adopting the Monroe Doctrine may have been inspired by something more estimable than those of Little Jack Horner, something more justifiable than the mere narrow provincialism and petty selfishness of a people intent only upon being undisturbed in the pursuit of material well-being; in which case Mr. Wilson may be right after all in saying that in entering the European war we are not renouncing but only extending the Monroe Doctrine. But if that is so, then this doctrine must mean something more than it seems on the surface to mean. A consideration of the circumstances which gave rise to the Monroe Doctrine will in fact show, I think, that it was the expression of something more peculiarly American, of something far more important for America and for the world than any mere geographical or political isolation.

The policy embodied in the Monroe Doctrine was first clearly expressed by Washington. At that time the United States had but recently and with great difficulty won its independence from Great Britain. The war for independence was justified on the principle that all men have equal rights to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness, and that accordingly all just governments derive their sanction from the consent of the governed. When independence was won, the government of the United States was founded upon that principle; and from that day to this the guiding ideal of our political and social life has been the right of the people to govern themselves and the obligation of the people to assure, so far as possible, equal opportunity to all citizens. In its origin and in its history the United States has stood for this or it has stood for nothing. Our whole social enterprise has been, in the estimation of Europe rather more than of America, an experiment in democracy on a large scale, the most momentous attempt in the history of the world to determine whether government of the people, by the people, and for the people might endure permanently.

In the days of Washington this venture of the United States was a fairly novel one, with no brilliant prospects of ultimate success. The newly established government was feeble, the country was loaded with debt, and public opinion was divided over the double danger of political anarchy and executive tyranny. Able men in America and in Europe believed that the United States must sooner or later surrender either its independence or its free government; that its feeble government must either give place to a strong monarchy or in self defense be drawn into the system of European alliances and so lose the better part of independence. The opposition in the country between the Federalists and the Republican followers of Jefferson

was greatly intensified and embittered by the French Revolution, while the European wars made it difficult and at last impossible for the United States to maintain its neutrality and at the same time defend its rights. After submitting to repeated humiliations, after resorting to every measure short of war, the United States at last fought with England the war which is sometimes called the second war of independence.

The policy of the United States during this period found classic expression in the famous farewell address of President Washington. "The great rule of conduct for us, in regard to foreign nations, is, in extending our commercial relations, to have with them as little *political* connection as possible. . . . Europe has a set of primary interests, which to us have none, or a very remote relation. Hence she must be engaged in frequent controversies, the causes of which are essentially foreign to our concerns. Hence therefore it must be unwise in us to implicate ourselves, by artificial ties in the ordinary vicissitudes of her politics, or the ordinary combinations and collisions of her friendships, or enmities. . . . If we remain one people, under an efficient government, the period is not far off, when . . . belligerent nations, under the impossibility of making acquisitions upon us, will not lightly hazard the giving us provocation; when we may choose peace or war, as our interests guided by justice shall counsel. Why forego the advantages of so peculiar a situation? . . . Why, by interweaving our destiny with that of any part of Europe, entangle our peace and prosperity in the toils of European ambition, rivalry, interest, humor, or caprice?"

To understand why Washington so strongly urged this policy one must read the entire Farewell Address. It will then be clear that the danger which engaged him most was the danger of internal division. The principal part of the address is concerned with pointing out those evils which threatened to dissolve the union and to place the stamp of failure on the newly established federal government. To prevent this greatest of calamities he urged his countrymen to renounce those class enmities and sectional and party rivalries that were likely to weaken the union of the states; and it was precisely because he felt that entangling alliances abroad would endanger the union and undermine free government that he wished to avoid such alliances. "How many opportunities do they [exaggerated attachments or hostilities to foreign nations] afford to tamper with domestic factions, to practice the arts of seduction, to mislead public opinion, to influence or awe the public councils! . . . Against the insidious wiles of foreign influence, I conjure you to believe me, fellow-citizens, the jealousy of a free people ought to be *constantly* awake, since history and experience prove that foreign influence is one of the most baneful foes of Republican Government. But that jealousy to be useful must be impartial; else it becomes the instrument of the very influence to be avoided, instead of a defence against it."

The situation which gave rise to President Monroe's famous message in 1823 was in some respects different from that which confronted Washington and Jefferson. The government of the United States had become well established, the people were conscious of their power and wedded to their institutions. At the same time republican governments were being rapidly established in South America, where the revolted Spanish colonies had already practically won independence. In Europe, on the other hand, the public policy of the Great Powers was guided by reactionary ideals. After 1815 the chief aim of the principal states was to prevent a repetition of the stupendous conflicts which had characterized the Napoleonic era. To preserve the peace of Europe, in the opinion of Metternich, who was the guiding spirit, at least after 1818, of the Concert of Europe, it was necessary to maintain the existing political system. The chief danger to the existing political system was manifestly those republican theories spread abroad by the American and the French revolutions. It was therefore the duty of the Great Powers to act in concert in the suppression of all revolutions intended to propagate or establish republican institutions. On these grounds revolutions in Italy were suppressed by Austria, France was given a free hand in restoring the Bourbons to the Spanish throne, and it was a mooted question whether the concerted powers had not bound themselves to suppress the South American republics and return them as colonies to Spain.

Under these circumstances the United States again declared its intention not to become implicated in the European system of alliances. In 1820, in an interview with Stratford Canning, the English minister to the United States, Secretary Adams declared that "the European alliances . . . had . . . regulated the affairs of all Europe without ever calling the United States to their consultations. It was best for both parties that they should continue to do so; for if the United States should become a member of the body they would . . . bring to it some principles not congenial to those of the other members, and those principles would lead to discussions tending to discord rather than to harmony." But, in view of the threatened intervention of the European powers in South America, an intervention based avowedly upon hostility to republican institutions, President Monroe declared in his message of 1823 (the ideas were those of Adams more than of the president) that the "peace and happiness" of the United States would be endangered if the "allied powers should extend their political system" to any portion of the American continent. "The political system of the allied powers," he said, "is essentially different . . . from that of America. This difference proceeds from that which exists in their respective governments. And to the defence of our own, which has been achieved by the loss of so much blood and treasure, and matured by the wisdom of their most enlightened citizens . . . this whole nation is devoted."

It is to be observed that neither Washington nor Monroe supposed that Europe and America should have nothing to do with each other; the main point was that

the United States would not enter into the European system of alliances, and would oppose the extension of the European political system to this continent. The most notable attempt to extend the political system of Europe to America occurred during the Civil War, when Emperor Napoleon III, by means of the French army, established an Austrian prince in Mexico on the ruins of her former republican institutions. Against this enterprise the United States protested vigorously, and the grounds of this protest were clearly stated by Secretary Seward in 1865. "The real cause of our national discontent is, that the French army which is now in Mexico is invading a domestic republican government there which was established by her people . . . for the avowed purpose of suppressing it and establishing upon its ruins a foreign monarchical government, whose presence there, so long as it should endure, could not but be regarded by the people of the United States as injurious and menacing to their own chosen and endeared republican institutions. . . . The people of every State on the American continent have a right to secure for themselves a republican government if they choose, and . . . interference by foreign states to prevent the enjoyment of such institutions deliberately established is wrongful, and in its effects antagonistical to the free and popular form of government existing in the United States."

It can not, of course, be maintained that the United States has invariably acted with chastened purposes and worthy aims, or that it has never invoked the Monroe Doctrine except for the disinterested and ideal purpose of defending democratic institutions. Nor can it be denied that the policy embodied in the Monroe Doctrine has been an expression of our material interests. The historical process does not occur in a vacuum; the motives of individuals or of peoples are not pigeonholed. The Monroe Doctrine is based upon material interests precisely as much or as little as democracy itself. It may be safely said, however, that in the crucial instances of the formulation of the Monroe Doctrine one essential and determining influence has been the incompatibility of European and American political institutions and ideals; and fundamentally our policy has been to protest against the extension of the European political system to America because, on account of that incompatibility, such an extension would endanger our institutions as well as our interests. In this sense the Monroe Doctrine has been the expression of that most deep-seated of American instincts, the attachment to free government and democratic social institutions. It is as if we had said to Europe: "We are bound that this great experiment in democracy shall have a fair chance. It may fail in the end. If so, let it at least be clearly demonstrated that the failure is due to inherent weaknesses and not to external interference. We propose, if it be a possible thing, to make this part of the world at least safe for democracy."

If this is the essential meaning of the Monroe Doctrine, is there anything in it which should restrain us from joining the Allies against Germany? If this is its essential meaning, are we not on the contrary committed by it to join the Allies against Germany?

With the progress of the Great War it has become as clear as day that the vital issue in this stupendous struggle is whether democratic and peaceful, or autocratic and military, ideals are to shape the future destinies of Europe. Few Americans deny that a decisive victory for Germany would be an irremediable defeat for democracy. Can it be supposed, then, that such a defeat for democracy in Europe would not be a menace to democracy in America? Clearly not. A triumphant Germany would be more ominous than the Holy Alliance ever was; England defeated would be a more fatal reverse for the United States in 1917 than the restoration of the South American republics to Spain would have been in 1823. For a hundred

years we have asked, and not in vain, that Europe should leave America free to try the great experiment in free government. Now that the better part of Europe is engaged in a desperate and uncertain struggle for the preservation of the very ideals of which we have been hitherto the professed champion, it is the part of wisdom as well as highly fitting that we should have our share in making the world safe for democracy. I cannot think that in pledging our lives and our fortunes to bring about that fortunate event, the people of the United States, whose country was "conceived in liberty and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal," can be in serious danger of departing from their profoundest traditions.

### III. The Study of English History

BY PROFESSOR ROBERT LIVINGSTON SCHUYLER, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY.

The English-speaking peoples are divided politically into two great commonwealths—the American and the British; but in all that goes to make up the vague complex we call civilization they are in close affinity. The American citizen finds himself at home in London or Sydney or Toronto, the British in New York or San Francisco—as neither does in Paris or Petrograd or Berlin. The civilization, like the language, of the United States is derived from England, and, subject to the inevitable modifications produced by environment, has remained English. Vast portions of our present territory, it is true, were first disclosed to the world by men of other races than the English. The Mississippi River was explored by Frenchmen, and the whole of its huge basin was once claimed by France. The greater part of the present area of the United States once formed part of the colonial empire of Spain. The City of New York traces its origin to a Dutch trading-post. Yet to-day little more than a few place names, like Los Angeles, Baton Rouge and Harlem, serve to remind us of the vanished power of Spain, France and Holland. The dominance and vitality of the English element in American society is best seen, however, not in its triumphs over preceding Spanish or French or Dutch elements, but rather in its capacity to absorb the enormous alien immigration of recent years. "The son of the immigrant into the United States," it has been truly said, "finds himself at home in Canada, Australia or Britain, while he feels himself a detached stranger within his own ancestral gates in Continental Europe."

Language, though the most obvious and important, is only one of the many bonds of union between the two English-speaking commonwealths. They have a common literature and common historical traditions. They have essentially the same political ideas, the same views of government and liberty, the same attitude toward society and the individual. Their commercial and intellectual relations are of the closest. For three thousand miles along an unfortified frontier, the Canadian-American boundary line, they are con-

tiguous. Controversies between them have indeed arisen, but the unbroken peace which they have maintained for more than a century testifies that they have found more rational and civilized methods of adjusting their disputes than the appeal to arms. And now that America has abandoned her traditional policy of isolation and is co-operating with the British Commonwealth in the mightiest struggle of all time for purposes which both have in common, the relations between them promise to be still closer and more cordial in the future.

Yet the true nature of the British Commonwealth is not generally understood in the United States, nor is its history taught in our schools or colleges in any adequate fashion. The history of England is taught, but England is only a part of the British Commonwealth. A generation ago the English historian Seeley protested against the writing and study of modern English history that was current in England in his day, on the ground that it was concerned almost exclusively with the history of England. It neglected what was for him the most significant and important fact of modern English history, the growth of the British Empire, the expansion of the English race and of English political institutions throughout the world. He attributed this defect of English historiography to the insular attitude of mind of the English people.

"We constantly betray by our modes of speech," he said, "that we do not reckon our colonies as really belonging to us; thus, if we are asked what the English population is, it does not occur to us to reckon in the population of Canada and Australia. This fixed way of thinking has influenced our historians." His "Expansion of England" was a most influential historical book, and became a potent factor in directing the attention of thinking men in England to the colonies, and in setting them to speculate upon the future of the Empire. But until very recently the average Englishman has viewed the "colonial" as an inferior and the colonies as scarcely worthy of serious study. It used to be very difficult, as Joseph



Chamberlain found, to get him to "think imperially." The war has produced a great change in this respect in public sentiment in England and will probably result in the constitutional reconstruction of the Empire on the basis of the equality of the Dominions with the United Kingdom.

If Englishmen have been content to remain so long ignorant of the history of their Empire, it is not surprising that the same has been true of Americans. There has no doubt been improvement in the study of modern English history on both sides of the Atlantic since Seeley's day. It is less exclusively political, it pays more attention to modern industrialism, it serves better to explain the England of to-day. But it has remained predominantly insular. No serious attempt is made, certainly not in American schools or colleges, to explain the growth of "that amorphous aggregate misleadingly designated as the British Empire." One has only to glance over the text-books in use in our schools and the questions set for examination in English history for admission to our colleges to satisfy himself of the truth of this statement.

One reason, no doubt, why the true nature of the British Commonwealth is not generally understood in this country is the habit of calling it an "empire." To apply to an intimate alliance or quasi-federation of democratic communities, together with their dependencies, a name laden with associations of military subjugation and personal despotism is to court misapprehension and confusion.

"The word Empire, the word Imperial," a distinguished contemporary British "imperialist" has said, "are in some respects unfortunate. They suggest domination, ascendancy, the rule of a superior state over vassal states. . . . When we, who call ourselves Imperialists, talk of the British Empire, we think of a group of states, independent of one another in their local affairs, but bound together for the defense of their common interests, and the development of a common civilization." Of late a serious effort has

been made to escape from the tyranny of an outworn nomenclature by substituting the term "Commonwealth" for "Empire." The British Prime Minister has publicly referred to the British Empire as a "Commonwealth of Nations," and the Imperial Conference held in London in 1917, in an official resolution, employed the expression, "Imperial Commonwealth," as a substitute for the conventional designation.

Then, too, Americans have been slow to overcome ancient prejudices inherited from the days of the American Revolution. They have cherished the belief that the British Empire, from which the United States revolted, is in a sense antagonistic to true Americanism. "Patriotic" school histories have fostered this notion, and until very recently twisting the British Lion's tail was a favorite diversion of one species of American "statesmanship." Few of us know how far the British Commonwealth of to-day has moved from the British Empire of George III.

It is with this Commonwealth of Nations, not with the insular state of England, nor with the British Empire of the past, that Americans in the future will be more and more concerned. Sound educational policy requires that the closely knit peoples of the two English-speaking commonwealths study each other's history. There has been of late much criticism of the current teaching of history in America. The whole subject of the school curriculum and the present scheme of college entrance examinations in history is the subject of reconsideration by committees recently appointed by the American Historical Association and the College Entrance Examination Board. It is earnestly to be hoped that in making their recommendations respecting English history they will prove themselves genuinely forward-looking, and will appreciate the urgent need of promoting in the United States a better knowledge of the history of that world-wide Commonwealth with which it cannot fail to be in most intimate contact, that "new Venice whose streets are the oceans."

#### IV. A Turning Point in Far Eastern Diplomacy

BY PROFESSOR AMOS S. HERSHEY, UNIVERSITY OF INDIANA.

A turning point in the history of diplomacy in the Far East appears to have been reached in the recent exchange of notes on November 2, 1917, between Japan and the United States. By this "executive agreement" these two countries once more reaffirmed their adherence to the doctrine of the open door, or policy of equal opportunity for trade and industry in China, and mutually pledged each other to respect the independence and territorial integrity of that country. In addition, the United States recognized that "Japan has special interests in China, particularly in the part to which her possessions are contiguous."

We may regard this agreement as a turning point in the history of international relations in the Far

East because it seems to mark a transition between what we may call the older and the newer diplomacy. The distinction is one both as to aims and methods.

According to the older diplomacy, China was a happy hunting ground for concession hunters, loan syndicates and traders of various nationalities. In furtherance of imperialistic designs on the part of certain Governments (especially Russia and Germany) and in accordance with the principles of "dollar diplomacy," these Governments vied among themselves, often using dubious methods in securing by means of "treaty rights" trade advantages, privileges, loans, concessions or monopolies for their respective nationals, whether corporate persons or individuals. The result was that Peking became a hotbed

of diplomatic intrigue, and a privileged position in China became an object of political wire-pulling (not unaccompanied by fraud and threats of force) to the extent that the very independence and territorial integrity of the country was threatened.

The Chinese Empire was divided into "spheres of interest" and even forced to "lease" certain vital portions of her territory to several European powers. Indeed, matters had reached such a point by the year 1898, after the "leasing" of Kiao-Chau to Germany and of Port Arthur to Russia, that China was in great danger of dismemberment.

It will thus be seen that China was in sore need of a champion in 1899, when John Hay, then our Secretary of State, stepped out upon the arena of Far Eastern politics and issued his famous Circular Note to the powers in order to "maintain an open market for the world's commerce and to remove dangerous sources of international irritation." Mr. Hay sought to obtain and did in part obtain from the powers concerned—Great Britain, Germany, France, Italy, Russia and Japan—formal assurances to the following effect: (1) that they would not interfere with any treaty port or with the vested interest of any nation within a so-called "sphere of interest" or leased territory which one of them might have in China; (2) that they would maintain the Chinese treaty tariff (except in "free ports") under Chinese management, i. e., guarantee equality of treatment for all nations under the most favored nation clause; and (3) that there shall be equality of treatment for all nations in respect to harbor dues and railroad charges.

These proposals constitute our statement of what is generally known as the open-door policy in China, or the principle of equal opportunity to trade for all nations. Together with a long series of declarations (to which the other nations, more particularly Japan, have again and again assented) in favor of the independence and territorial integrity of China, they constitute the main features of our policy in the Far East.

Doubtless these principles have again and again been violated (more particularly by Japan since the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-05), but they form the basis of a new diplomacy and constitute a sort of Magna Charta for freedom of trade in China and the preservation of Chinese independence. These principles must be maintained, by force if necessary, if China is to remain free and our rights to participate in the development of that vast country are to be maintained.

In the spring of 1915 it looked for a time as though Japan would not hesitate to take advantage of the opportunity afforded by the great European war and our own state of inertia and unpreparedness to set aside these principles altogether and establish a protectorate over China. This would have been the inevitable outcome of her insistence upon the adoption by the Chinese Government of the whole of the twenty-one demands which were then presented at Peking.

But better counsels prevailed, and the worst of these demands were not included in the ultimatum which Japan issued to China in May, 1915. Since that unfortunate date in Chinese history the Japanese Government has followed a more liberal and enlightened policy in China, and the recent exchange of notes between Japan and the United States, to which reference was made at the beginning of this article, bears witness to this fact.

Japan has reached the parting of the ways in her Far Eastern policy. Her conduct in China and consequently her relations with the United States are bound to become better or worse. Either she will revert to her old aims and methods learned in an evil school and taught by bad European examples, or she will whole-heartedly and unreservedly adopt the aims and methods of the newer diplomacy as advocated and practiced by the United States. In the latter event, China will probably be saved, and the United States, recognizing the "special position" of Japan in the contiguous and adjacent provinces, will only be too glad to co-operate with Japan and other nations in the guidance and industrial development of the Chinese Empire.

The detailed history of the first draft under the Selective Service Act is recounted in the report dated December 20, 1917 (Government Printing Office, 1918), of the Provost Marshal General.

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## American Historical Association

In spite of the inclement weather, the difficulties of travel, and the war conditions, the thirty-third annual meeting of the American Historical Association, held in Philadelphia, December 27-29, was attended by about four hundred members, and proved fully as interesting as any recent meeting of the Association. The University of Pennsylvania, the Historical Society of Pennsylvania, and other local societies and clubs joined in entertaining the members of the Association.

A number of eleventh-hour changes were made in the program, but in general it was carried out as outlined in the *MAGAZINE* for December, 1917. Much interest attached to the general sessions on Thursday morning and evening, and on Friday evening, not only on account of the topics to be discussed, but also because a number of the original members of the Association took part in these meetings.

The conferences, as usual, called together those interested in specific historical questions. Of especial importance were the meetings which discussed ancient imperialism, military history and war economics, recent Russian history, and the history of the Far East and of Latin America. There were also conferences of archivists, historical societies, and of history teachers—a full report of the latter is given on another page of this issue.

While by far the greater number of the papers presented showed that, in spite of the war, American historical scholarship is continuing its previous habits of research and organization of material, yet the war-note was heard frequently during the sessions. The archivists discussed means for the preservation of war records. After luncheon on Saturday, history teachers listened to a number of short, bright talks upon the relation of the war to history teaching. After the luncheon on Thursday, Professor Guy Stanton Ford described in detail the educational activities of the Committee on Public Information. The presence and the addresses of MM. Louis Aubert and Francois Monod, of the French War Commission, and of Hon. R. H. Brand, of the British War Commission, gave an international character to some of the sessions, and emphasized the duty of historians in war times.

At the business meeting the following officers were chosen for the ensuing year:

President, William R. Thayer; first vice-president, Edward Channing; second vice-president, Jean Jules Jusserand; secretary, Waldo G. Leland; treasurer, Charles Moore; secretary of the Council, Evarts B. Greene; curator, A. Howard Clark; members of the Executive Council, Henry E. Bourne, Samuel B. Harding, Lucy M. Salmon, George M. Wrong, Herbert E. Bolton, William E. Dodd, Walter L. Fleming, William E. Lingelbach; Committee on Nominations, Charles H. Ambler, Christopher B. Coleman, Carl R. Fish, J. G. de R. Hamilton, Victor H. Paltsits.

The Executive Committee held a number of sessions during the meeting and announced the following actions:

### COUNCIL ACTION, DECEMBER 26-28, 1917.

1. Budget approved as follows (with the understanding that subscriptions are to be asked for to make up the deficiency): Appropriations for 1918, \$9,603.70; estimated income, \$9,025.00.

2. Reduction of issues of the *HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE* from ten to nine approved on recommendation of the Board of Advisory Editors.

3. Voted to recommend to the Association that a definite effort be made to sell the stock of publications of the Association now stored in the office of the secretary.

4. Voted that the treasurer be instructed to send a bill for the October number of the *Review* to members whose dues remain unpaid on the first of June.

5. Voted that in view of the present financial situation, the Board of Editors of the *American Historical Review* be requested to consider ways and means of reducing the expenses of publication of the *Review*.

6. Voted that the Board of Editors of the *American Historical Review* be authorized to negotiate with the Macmillan Company respecting the price at which the *Review* is furnished to members of the Association.

7. Voted to appoint a special Council Committee of five members on policy, with instructions to report to the Council at its next meeting respecting the future scientific activities of the Association. The following were appointed as members of this committee: Carl Becker, W. E. Dodd, G. S. Ford, C. H. Haskins, D. C. Munro (the committee to choose its own chairman).

8. The question of the annual meeting of the Association for 1918 being under consideration, it was voted to recommend to the Association: (1) That the meeting be held in Minneapolis; provided, however, that if, in view of the emergency due to the state of war, there appears to the Executive Council to be sufficient reason for changing the place of meeting or omitting the meeting altogether, the Executive Council be authorized to take such action and directed to notify the Association of its decision not later than September 1. (2) That if the annual meeting of 1918 is omitted the officers of the Association shall continue in office until the next annual meeting of the Association. (3) That, except in respect to the adoption of the annual budget, the secretary of the Council be authorized to take the votes of the Council by mail, when, in the judgment of the president and the secretary, such a procedure is expedient.

9. Adopted resolutions of appreciation on the occasion of the retirement of Mr. Clarence W. Bowen from the treasurer's office of the Association.

10. Voted to appoint members of committees and commissions as follows:

**HISTORICAL MANUSCRIPTS COMMISSION**—Justin H. Smith, chairman; D. R. Anderson, Mrs. Amos G. Draper, *Logan Esarey*,\* Gaillard Hunt, C. H. Lincoln, M. M. Quaife.

**COMMITTEE ON THE JUSTIN WINSON PRIZE**—Frederic L. Paxson, chairman; E. S. Corwin, F. H. Hodder, *Ida M. Tarbell*, Oswald G. Villard.

**COMMITTEE ON THE HERBERT BAXTER ADAMS PRIZE**—Ruth Putnam, chairman; C. D. Hazen, R. H. Lord, Louis J. Pautow, Conyers Read.

**PUBLIC ARCHIVES COMMISSION**—Victor H. Paltsits, chairman; *E. C. Barker*, Solon J. Buck, John C. Fitzpatrick, G. N. Fuller, George S. Goddard, Peter Guilday, Thomas M. Owen.

**COMMITTEE ON BIBLIOGRAPHY**—George M. Dutcher, chairman; *F. A. Golder*, William T. Laprade, Albert H. Lybyer, Wallace Notestein, William W. Rockwell, Augustus H. Shearer, *Adelaide Hasse*, Bernard C. Steiner.

**COMMITTEE ON PUBLICATION** (all ex-officio, except the chairman)—H. Barrett Learned, chairman; George M. Dutcher, Max Ferrand, E. B. Greene, J. Franklin Jameson, W. G. Leland, Victor H. Paltsits, Ruth Putnam, Justin H. Smith.

**COMMITTEE ON MEMBERSHIP**—Work of the committee temporarily assigned to a special committee, consisting of the two secretaries, with authority to choose other members.

\* Names in italics are those of new members.



COMMITTEE ON HISTORY IN SCHOOLS—J. M. Gambrill, chairman; Victoria A. Adams, Henry L. Cannon, Herbert D. Foster, Samuel B. Harding, J. A. James, D. C. Knowlton, A. C. Krey, Robert A. Maurer, Nathaniel W. Stephenson, R. M. Tryon, J. H. Van Sickle, W. L. Westermann.

CONFERENCE OF HISTORICAL SOCIETIES—A. H. Shearer, secretary.

ADVISORY BOARD, HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE (to serve three years from January 1, 1918)—Henry Johnson, chairman; Margaret McGill.

MEMBER, BOARD OF EDITORS, AMERICAN HISTORICAL REVIEW (to serve six years from January 1, 1918)—Charles H. Haskins.

COMMITTEES ON PROGRAM AND ON LOCAL ARRANGEMENTS—Appointments deferred.

11. Voted to appoint a special committee of three, consisting of Messrs. Munro, Leland and Greene, to confer with similar committees of other organizations respecting possible co-operation in national service.

12. Voted to authorize the Committee on Headquarters in London to approve proposals of the London Committee respecting the use of those quarters as a reading room for Americans in London.

13. Voted to refer to the Committee on Policy the question of co-operation between the American Historical Association and other scientific organizations in securing the continuance of certain forms of scholarly co-operation, interrupted in Europe as a result of conditions during, or immediately preceding, the present war.

14. In accordance with a request from the Bureau of Education to appoint a special committee to confer with similar committees of other organizations respecting college instruction in the social sciences, Messrs. Munro and Greene were appointed as such a committee.

## Notes from the Historical Field

### NOTES.

The Historical Society of Western Pennsylvania began in January, 1918, the issuing of a quarterly journal entitled, *The Western Pennsylvania Historical Magazine*. The first number includes a sketch of the life of the Rev. John Taylor and extracts from his "Common Place Book." An account is given of the first trial and conviction of murder west of the Allegheny Mountains, and extracts (to be continued) are printed from the diary of a young oil speculator.

The History and Civics Section of the Pennsylvania State Educational Association met in the High School Building at Johnstown on Thursday, December 27. The program included the following topics: "Senior Civics," by Miss Mary McArgle; "Military Training in the High School," by B. B. Smith; "Social Factors as Developed in the Study of History," by E. E. Kuntz; and a round table discussion upon two subjects: (1) "Community Civics; Its Content and Methods," and (2) "Should We Change from the Four Unit Plan?"

Prof. E. M. Violette and Prof. Eugene Fair, of the Normal School, contribute two articles to Number 7 of the History and Government Series of the Bulletin of the State Normal School at Kirksville, Mo. (January, 1917, delayed in publication). Professor Violette points out some recent historical investigations in Missouri history, particularly noting recent monographic writings upon the subject. Professor Fair gives a review of county government in the State of New York, pointing out the absence heretofore of

an adequate study of county government and reviewing particularly recent writings and research upon the New York county.

"Debating for High Schools," by Henry C. Davis and Reed Smith, is the topic presented in the Bulletin of the University of South Carolina for December, 1917 (No. 60). The pamphlet of forty-three pages gives advice concerning the organization of high school literary societies and a model constitution and by-laws. It discusses the means to attaining effective debating and gives a series of topics for debate.

The Texas History Teacher's Bulletin for November, 1917 (Vol. 6, No. 1), contains a series of source readings in medieval history prepared by Prof. M. R. Gutsch, and source readings in Texas history by Prof. Eugene C. Barker, of the University of Texas. The number also contains brief notes on the war, history teaching, and other news.

"A First Book in American History with European Beginnings," by Gertrude V. D. Southworth (New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1917), is prepared for sixth grade grammar school classes. The work is based on a somewhat different plan from that recommended by the Committee of Eight of the American Historical Association. The author has devoted about one-quarter of the book to the European background and the explorations of America. The remaining three-quarters deal with the history of the United States from the colonial period down to the Spanish-American war. The historical narrative is based very largely upon biographical facts, a leading figure in each period being taken as typical of his times.

A committee of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland has been appointed by the president, Prof. Marshall S. Brown, to co-operate with the National Board for Historical Service. The members upon the committee of co-operation are as follows: Dr. Henry R. Shipman, Princeton University, chairman; Dr. F. E. Moyer, DeWitt Clinton High School, New York City; Prof. Eleanor Lord, Goucher College, Baltimore; Dean Heckel, of Lafayette College, and Mr. E. P. Smith, of North Tonawanda, N. Y.

Under the terms of the Smith-Hughes Act, the Federal Bureau for Vocational Education has made grants of money for the furtherance of vocational education in forty-seven States, Rhode Island being the only State which has not yet conformed to the terms of the act. The amount available under this act for use during the current fiscal year is \$1,860,000.

THE HISTORY TEACHERS' SESSION OF THE PACIFIC COAST BRANCH OF THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION, HELD AT THE UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA, BERKELEY, SATURDAY AFTERNOON, DECEMBER 1, 1917.

The general question for consideration at this session was one which is being investigated by a commission of the California High School Teachers' Association, and bore on the European history covered by high school students whose course can include but one year in the European field.

The first paper was presented by Miss Jane E. Harnett, of the Long Beach High School, the chairman of the Commission. Miss Harnett showed from incomplete statistical returns of an investigation made by the Commission and covering the cases of 4,887 graduates of California high schools in the year 1917, that 45 per cent. had studied two years of European history, 28 per cent. one year only, and that 27 per cent. had studied no European history. The

problem was found to be more acute in cities and in schools establishing the newer vocational courses. Of the high school students who had studied but one year of European history 888 had either ancient history or the new combined course, 299 medieval and modern history, 71 English and 72 general history. The greater demand for a one-year course comes from Southern California. The main objections offered to such a course are that it will draw students who would otherwise take a two-year course and the impossibility of adequately teaching European history in one year. The problem of the student who takes one year is bound up with that of the student who takes none. Miss Harnett suggested (1) that there is no possibility of requiring all high school students to take two years of European history; (2) that the question to be settled is that of a more satisfactory arrangement of a course for one-year students; (3) that this raises the issue of the possibility of the real profitableness of a one-year course; (4) that history is to be considered as a life-current, explaining the problems of the present.

Miss Harnett held that the ordinary citizen cannot have an education which will permit his drawing on the facts at his command. Curiosity in the past must be awakened and the student stimulated to the utmost use of his powers. He is to feel that the problems of the present are his, and must search in the past for these currents. The one-year course, therefore, cannot be a mere condensation of the two-year course. The problem must be one tracing something of present-day interest. No fixed course can be mapped out, for this depends upon interest and the ability of the teacher to direct. The child can best learn to marshal facts through the problem method and the socializing of the recitation. This kind of one-year course is likely to lead to several one-year courses. As to the question of text-books it may be said that several will be required as well as the library. But one must not look to a text-book to give him conclusions worked out.

In the paper which followed Miss Agnes E. Howe, of the State Normal School, San Jose, also gave statistics showing that a large number of high school students take no history beyond the first year. She held that there is too much of the question and answer method based on the text-book, and that almost the only faculty developed is memory. Attention was urged to the needs of the large percentage who have to earn their own living. A one-year course of biographical studies on interesting subjects was suggested, but it was held that teaching ability must be the determining factor in making the selection.

The discussion which followed the presentation of these papers, and which preceded adjournment, was spirited. The secretary held that, whatever need the larger schools found for experiment such as Miss Harnett advocated, it is not practicable in the smaller and many of the medium-sized schools, and should not be recommended to schools of the type wherein the qualifications of the history teacher are of necessity uncertain. Professor Shaw regarded such a course as current events with an historical background, and as applying to high school work the method of historical research. He did not believe that the demand for change came from the history people, nor that a scrappy course would take the place of a steady diet. He held that the ordinary high school student is as much interested in Julius Caesar as in Abraham Lincoln, and objected to history teaching from the standpoint of our own lives as self-centred in conception, whereas immersion in the life of the past would bring enlargement of life. Subsequently he stated that the type of history advocated went out about 1830, and, in answer to a question as to whether decline of interest in history in schools is not due to failure of the old type

of course, said that he attributed it in considerable part to new and mistaken views of history.

Professor Bolton reaffirmed the view that what is more remote is sometimes more practical. Dr. T. J. Jones, of the Bureau of Education, protested against the conception of facts for facts' sake, and urged that facts be selected to meet the needs of the pupils. Professor McCormac urged that history in schools is too often just "one thing after another," and that pupils should be taught to do intelligent thinking. He held that good teachers should be permitted to do the type of work advocated by Miss Harnett. Mr. J. G. Gliff, of the Stockton High School, discounted the emphasis on the necessity of a superior teacher for this type of work, and after describing the course which he gives in American history, denied that he was teaching current events. Dr. K. C. Leebrick asserted that the important question is whether students have been taught to think, and held that history taught by the newer methods is the better preparation for college work. Prof. W. S. Thomas, school examiner for the University of California, also emphasized the needs of children, holding that facts are worthless unless worked into life. He stated that the teaching of history in schools is nearly dead, and that children's thinking has been damaged by high school methods. Prof. T. C. Knoles objected to teaching ninth and tenth grade students what their teachers learned in college, and Lieut. L. P. Jackson advocated the necessity of working to scale, whatever the time allowed and whatever the period covered.

#### THE WAR AND THE SCHOOLS.

At the annual meeting of the Association of American Colleges held in Chicago, January 11 and 12, the subject of the influence of the war upon American education was uppermost. Figures were presented by the secretary of the Association showing the great falling off in college attendance as a result of the war. President Charles F. Thwing discussed the prospects for liberal education after the war; Dr. Charles Cestre, of the University of Bordeaux, gave a highly interesting account of the cultural advantages offered by French universities for American students; President L. P. Powell, lately returned from a trip to the European front, told in what ways the American colleges could co-operate with European educational institutions. President John Henry MacCracken spoke upon the topic, "Pooling the College Interests as a War Measure." His paper is printed upon another page of this issue. At the business session the executive committee was authorized to take steps for greater co-operation among American colleges for war work.

The Teachers' Prize Essay Contest upon the topic, "Why the United States is at War," which was conducted under the auspices of the National Board for Historical Service, closed on January 1. The total number of essays received was 642, the largest number coming from the State of North Carolina. It sent 94 essays. The essays have been sent to the committees of judges in the several States and an announcement of the awards will be made as soon as possible. Two State contests were not closed on the first of January. These were the contests conducted by the Board in Rhode Island and conducted by the State Council of Defense in Missouri.

*The American College Bulletin*, published by the Council of Church Boards of Education (Chicago), in its issue for November 3, 1917, gives a brief account of "What the War Has Done to the Colleges and What the Colleges Are Doing for the War."

Realizing the need of keeping college men at their scholastic work until the time for military service arrives, the authorities of the Southwestern Presbyterian University (Clarksville, Tenn.) have organized a College League for Leadership. The pledge of this League is of such a practical and specific character that it deserves much wider adoption:

"I hereby pledge myself to the service of the Government of the United States of America as follows:

"I agree to undertake and to perform my duties as a student with loyalty and enthusiasm, as a patriotic duty.

"I further agree to devote myself without reservation to the development of every ability I possess which will enable me to render more effective service to my country and to realize the highest ideals of American citizenship."

The League has also published in artistic form a creed which may be hung upon the wall or placed upon the student's desk. It is as follows:

"I believe in the United States of America, in her institutions and her ideals, in her glorious past, her chivalrous present, and her boundless future.

"I believe in a true and progressive and triumphant democracy as the noblest expression of the rights of man, in liberty and humanity, in honor and justice, in equality of opportunity, and in the comradeship of a common sacrifice.

"I believe in the calm heroism of unflinching fidelity to the commonplace duty, in the consecration of self in the spirit of single-hearted service to the furtherance of our national welfare, and in the loyal devotion of those powers I possess to the enduring betterment of the world."

Indiana high school boys and girls are being encouraged to form school councils of defense which in turn will be organized in a general Patriotic Service League. The League is not intended to place an additional organization upon already overburdened schools, but rather to take up the work of co-ordinating the various war activities already carried on in the schools. A description of the work of the councils will be found in the *Educator-Journal* (Indianapolis) for January, 1918.

Professor Louis Renault's work upon "First Violations of International Law by Germany" has been translated by Dr. Frank Carr, and is now published by Longmans, Green & Co. (75 cents). The work outlines the international agreement upon which the German Government had acknowledged and guaranteed the neutrality of Luxembourg and of Belgium; it gives the reply of Belgium to German demands for a passage through their territory; and then considers in detail the attitude of the German Government toward Belgium; the Belgium fortresses; the plea of necessity and the documents found at Brussels.

Three new numbers have recently been issued in the very helpful War Information Series published by the Bureau of Extension of the University of North Carolina. Number 7, entitled "Patriotism and the Schools," is an address delivered by President Edward K. Graham, of the University. Number 8, "Why We Are at War With Germany," gives arguments showing how the German Empire threatens the safety of the United States. Number 9, "What to Read Concerning the Great War," contains a brief annotated bibliography of the war. Over fifty general volumes are described in addition to the publications of the Committee on Public Information.

"The World War and the Negro" is the title of an article by W. T. B. Williams in the *Southern Workman* for January, 1918. Mr. Williams shows the part French colonial negroes have played on the foreign battle field. He describes the changes in the life of American negroes due to the increased demand for labor in the North.

Number 4 of the pamphlet entitled, "Iowa and War," contains a description of the equipment of the Iowa troops in the Civil War by Cyril P. Upham. The pamphlet tells in very interesting style the poor and incomplete equipment which was furnished to the Iowa troops. The difficulties extended not only to clothing and blankets, but to the guns and weapons furnished the troops. The Governor of the State made a special trip to New York and Washington during the summer of 1861 in an effort to procure equipment for the use of troops which were being raised in the State. The variety of equipment which was finally attained is well shown by the following list of fire arms: Old flint lock muskets, rifled muskets, Austrian muskets, Prussian muskets, Harper's Ferry muskets, Belgium rifles, Spencer's carbines, Sharpe's carbines, Colt's revolvers, Navy revolvers, Whitworth rifles, Colt's revolving rifles, Minnie rifles, Springfield muskets, Garibaldi rifle muskets, French rifles, and Enfield rifles.

"The Star-Spangled Banner" and its author, Francis Scott Key, are described in the pamphlet published by the Free Library of Newark, N. J. The pamphlet tells how and when the poem was written; the story of the banner which Key actually saw from his prison ship; a short story of Key's life; some notes on war music and national songs; the text of the "Star-Spangled Banner," and notes for use in teaching the poem to children or to foreign-born Americans.

The University of Montana in its public service division has organized a series of lectures on the nations of the Great War. The lectures are given first at the University and then in various cities throughout the State. The proceeds are being devoted to the Red Cross work. Subjects of the lectures are Germany, Belgium, Russia, England, France, Turkey, Italy, the Balkans, and Scandinavia.

Sidney Webb's article on "International Trade Revolution" in *The New Republic* for January 5, is a prophecy of dire necessity after the war has closed, as "no government, belligerent or neutral, will feel able, the morning after peace has been declared, to dispense with the extensive controls it has had to exercise over importing and exporting, manufacturing and distributing. No nation will be included, whatever may be the prices offered by others in more desperate need, to allow the export from its own territory of any commodity of which its own people may presently run short. On the other hand, every nation will be eager to increase its own exports and therefore to obtain for this purpose a sufficiency of materials and coal, in order both to employ its demobilized millions and to pay for the imports of which it will be in want."

Dr. Solon J. Buch, superintendent of the Minnesota Historical Society, contributes a paper upon "Historical Preparedness" to the "Minnesota Public Library Commission Library Notes and News" for December, 1917 (Vol. V, No. 8).



## BOOK REVIEWS

EDITED BY PROFESSOR WAYLAND J. CHASE,  
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

CLAY, OLIVER. *Heroes of the American Revolution*. New York: Duffield & Co., 1917. Pp. 307. \$1.25, net.

The story of Revolutionary events is not told in chronological sequence in this book, neither does it consist of a mere series of biographies. Events and biographies are woven together rather indiscriminately, sometimes without much regard to either time or logic. While the biographical material presents some features that are new and interesting to young readers, the book is too plentifully sprinkled with exaggerations, half-truths, misconceptions, and downright errors to be recommended. It is written in the ultra-patriotic style that ought to disappear from books written for boys and girls.

ALBERT H. SANFORD.

State Normal School, La Crosse, Wis.

GAMBRILL, J. MONTGOMERY. *Leading Events of Maryland History*. Ginn & Co., 1917. Pp. xi, 374. \$1.00.

In this new edition of Mr. Gambrill's book, the last chapter has been rewritten and extended "to include every important phase—political, industrial, commercial, artistic, and educational—of the recent civic life of the state," says the author in his preface. This is a pretty large order when only about forty pages are given to the period since 1865, and when a large part of this space is occupied with pictures and pedagogical aids. The author devotes 113 pages to colonial history, 110 to state history, 50 to historical sketches of the counties, and about 90 to appendices containing chiefly the colonial charter and the state constitution. The book is full of interesting illustrations, but too many of them present men and houses and monuments. Each chapter is provided with several pages of "typical analyses, references and questions" for the teacher's use.

EDGAR DAWSON.

Hunter College of the City of New York.

GLEASON, ARTHUR. *Our Part in the Great War*. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Co., 1917. Pp. vi, 338. \$1.35.

The author was in ambulance service in the war zone, and later a special correspondent there for the "Century Magazine" and New York "Tribune." His book, divided into four sections, tells first the part many thousands of Americans took in the Great War before our country's entrance into it, and records his own observations of American soldiers, doctors, ambulance drivers, nurses, stretcher-bearers and air-plane men. In Section II he searches for the reasons for the neutrality of some of our population, a neutrality which existing before our congress declared war has disappeared totally now in very many of the quarters where he found it. Section III, entitled "The Germans that Rose from the Dead," reports the damning records supplied in the first of the war by the diaries found on dead German soldiers. Here is what the American world was so reluctant at first to accept—proof of systematic massacre, systematic pillage, systematic arson, atrocity as a policy. Section IV recounts his own observations in the war-devastated areas of France, and reports his conversations with the surviving civilians there. These sections are supplemented by an addendum recounting various services rendered in the way of organized relief by Americans resident abroad to homeless Belgians, French and Serbians, and by an appendix containing a reply "to neutral critics" and suggestions to those who desire to do more reading on the

topics treated in this book. There is abundant confirmation of his statements, and though some portions of his book are antiquated, so fast have events pressed on each other, yet there is much that is still timely and tonic in it for the general reader.

GRAHAM, STEPHEN. *Russia in 1916*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1917. Pp. 191. \$1.25.

At the present time so much depends on what the Russian people will do that books about them and their life are sure to be read. Mr. Graham has travelled long and widely in Russia, and seems to know the people well. This particular book is not a weighty discussion of politics, economics, or the war. It is simply a sketchy account of the author's trip to Russia in 1916. He arrived at the new ice-free Russian harbor in the North, Ekaterina, travelled to Archangel and thence to Central Russia, the Caucasus, back to Petrograd, and thence to England. Mr. Graham has written a readable and interesting little book. But by itself it gives too little direct information to be strongly recommended for high school libraries.

CLARENCE PERKINS.

Ohio State University.

MAGRUDER, FRANK ABBOTT. *American Government, with a Consideration of the Problems of Democracy*. Chicago: Allyn & Bacon, 1917. Pp. xiv, 455. \$1.25.

Those teachers of civics who are not satisfied with the abstract presentation of this subject will welcome this new book. The author presents the subject simply and clearly in such a way that high school pupils will be interested. This is done by giving illustrations and statistics so that the pupils realize that they are dealing with present problems as well as general principles. In discussing the cost of government, the author shows the increased cost since 1850; at the same time he shows the increased ability to pay and the increased services rendered by the government. Pupils will get a much clearer understanding by following the Underwood-Simmons Tariff Bill through each step of its passage than if the author had discussed the passage of a bill in general. The chapter on Civil and Criminal Procedure is a good illustration of the new presentation which makes the book interesting and clear. The author does not give merely the definition of terms, but traces a suit at law, a suit in equity, and then follows with a discussion of crimes and criminal procedure.

The book has many helps for the teacher as well as the pupils. At the end of each chapter there are questions on the text which may aid the inexperienced teacher, but may help to deaden the work in the hands of a lazy teacher. There are questions for discussion at the end of each chapter, which cannot fail to arouse interest and thought. There is more than enough material of this kind to supply an ordinary class. There are statistical tables which may be made to serve a real need in the teaching of civics. There are short outlines, too, which will help the pupils to see the need of organization in learning the subject. There are one hundred illustrations and thirty-eight fac-similes, diagrams, and maps, which add very much to the attractiveness and usefulness of the book. There are three appendixes and an eighteen-page index, which are up to the high standard of the rest of the work.

As in all books, there are some things with which one might find fault. However, the good points outweigh these, and all teachers, whether satisfied with their present textbooks or not, will find this one stimulating and suggestive, and one that can be used as a reference.

C. A. SMITH.

University of Wisconsin.

WEBSTER, HUTTON. *Early European History*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1917. Pp. 687. \$1.60.

According to the preface, the aim of this book is "to furnish a concise and connected account of human progress during ancient, medieval, and early modern times." Probably the author has covered the period from the earliest times to the year 1648 as completely and accurately as is possible within the limits of six hundred and eighty-seven pages. The space is all too brief for so extended a story, yet it must be admitted that even six hundred and eighty-seven pages make a book of forbidding size and weight. The style, however, is clear and direct; the illustrations are valuable; the studies at the end of each chapter offer useful suggestions; and the references for outside reading are unusually well adapted to the needs of young students. The teacher who regards history as primarily an informational subject will find here a wealth of valuable material.

For those teachers who look upon history as essentially a social study the usefulness of the book is more open to question. The author has kept to the time limits proposed by the Committee on Social Studies of the National Education Association, but in the selection of material he has not, apparently, been influenced by the suggestions of that body. The recommendations of the Committee on Social Studies call not so much for a chronological outline as for a series of cross-sections, with only the slenderest connecting thread. In the book under discussion are certain chapters, as, for instance, those dealing with the civilization of the later middle ages, which, if expanded, would lend themselves readily to such treatment. As they stand, however, the student must make his way to them, in orthodox chronological order, through a mass of facts, with but little opportunity to get at the living reality that lies behind the facts. The text-book in European history which offers satisfactory material for direct social study is yet far to seek.

HARRIET E. TUELL.

Somerville High School, Massachusetts.

TAPPAN, EVA MARCH. *The Little Book of the Flag*. Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1917. Pp. 122. 40 cents.

Descriptions and stories of the great variety of flags that were used in colonial and Revolutionary times occupy the greater part of this little volume. Of course, the story of the Betsy Ross flag has its place, briefly told. There are also brief accounts of the national flag as it figured prominently in many incidents of the wars of our history. There is a chapter upon flag etiquette. Concluding the book are a score of short poems and prose extracts relating to our national emblem.

S.

MYERS, WILLIAM STARR, EDITOR. *The Mexican War Diary of George B. McClellan*. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1917. Pp. iv + 97. \$1.00.

This is the rollicking diary of a twenty-year-old West Pointer, with a boyish enjoyment of cursing, brandy, occasionally too much, and surf bathing. It has nothing of the importance of Meade's "Life and Letters," though it gives confirmatory evidence of the doleful inadequacy of the volunteers.

Its interest lies chiefly in the glimpse it gives into the formative stages of a character that later became a national significance. One would certainly predict professional success for a youth so keenly interested in his work. He shows also a decided power of observation, and a wide range of human relationships extending to a capacity for strong friendship. There is, however, no indication that he admired anyone, which is a bad sign in a boy of twenty;

his acceptance of his own judgment is unhesitating and final; and he is already failing to receive his deserts.

CARL RUSSELL FISH.

The University of Wisconsin.

THE TEACHING OF GOVERNMENT. Report to the American Political Science Association by the Committee on Instruction. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1916. Pp. xi, 284. \$1.10.

The work of the committee whose report is now published covered a period of five years (1911-1916). We find the product to be a well digested, comprehensive statement of ideals, practices and recommendations that should interest every teacher whose duties fall within the field of the social sciences.

The report opens with a brief historical review of the stages through which the teaching of government in its more elementary phases has passed, with a fuller account of the work done by the various organizations and committees that have investigated the teaching of civics, from 1892 to the present time. There follows a good statement of the fundamental aims that should be present in this work. Here is shown the development of the idea of service as the final and best product to be realized. The committee avoids the mistake of placing emphasis upon devices and details of methods. It is clearly shown that the thing most needed where civics teaching is backward is a new point of view and a vitalization of the subject. However, specific examples are given showing the various means that are used by live teachers to produce the best results.

Before reaching its conclusions the committee conducted an extensive inquiry, by means of questionnaires, in co-operation with the Federal Bureau of Education. The replies received warrant the committee in saying, "That the civic awakening which is evident in many schools has permeated only a part of the public school system is apparent in replies from individual cities as well as in the state courses of study." In its summary of recommendations the committee asks "that a year of social science (exclusive of history) be given in the senior high school of which at least a half year shall be devoted to the study of government, and that four or five hours per week be given to this subject." It also asks that this work be credited by colleges, when well done. It demands better preparation of teachers, more emphasis upon local affairs, better library equipment in this subject, more practical instruction, and more actual contact between the school and the community. These, it will be conceded, are reasonable demands in this vital field of work.

In Part III, devoted to courses of study, there is no attempt to outline in detail a complete model course. The newness of this work and the variety of local conditions to be taken into consideration are reasons why this could not be satisfactorily done. However, general statements are made giving the committee's opinion concerning the nature of the work that may be done in all the grades of the elementary school. There is a good discussion of "Community Civics," its nature, aims, and appropriate methods. Numerous topics (health, education, civic beauty, etc.), are briefly outlined as a means of showing what ground may be covered. There are also outlines of topics that present the more formal organization of our political systems, local, state, and national.

Part IV, covering one hundred pages of the report, deals with instruction in political science in colleges and universities. Much space is devoted to a tabulation of the replies made by 531 higher institutions to the committee's question-

naire. In view of the evidence here presented, it may safely be concluded that these institutions are giving less adequate attention to political science than the elementary and secondary schools are giving to the corresponding subject matter of their courses. Says the committee: "In view of these facts it may well be asked whether the colleges are equipped to train for citizenship, to prepare teachers of government or to prepare for the professions which require an intimate knowledge of governmental affairs." This indictment also applies to the conditions found in the normal schools of the country as a whole.

The discussion of political science in colleges includes data upon courses and methods used, suggestions for improvement, and detailed descriptions of the courses offered in a number of prominent institutions. The committee emphatically recommends that courses in political science be separated from those in history, economics, and sociology. Its other recommendations are pertinent and helpful.

Much space is given in the appendix to the reports of nineteen State committees upon the teaching of civics in elementary and secondary schools. Here one may obtain a sort of bird's-eye view of conditions existing throughout the country. Some of the reports are sufficiently detailed to furnish excellent suggestions to the teacher who is in search of the best models.

From the report as a whole one gets the impression that the conclusions and recommendations are based upon a very complete knowledge of what is being done in schools and colleges where government is a subject of study. The volume ought to be used as a text in normal schools and colleges where students are being prepared to teach in the field of the social sciences. It should be read by every college instructor in the same field. It should have an influence comparable to that exerted by corresponding reports upon the subject of history.

ALBERT H. SANFORD.

State Normal School, La Crosse, Wis.

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## Some War Curiosities and the Clandestine Press in Belgium

DESCRIBED BY PROFESSOR CHRISTIAN GAUSS, PRINCETON UNIVERSITY.

PREPARED IN CO-OPERATION WITH THE NATIONAL BOARD FOR HISTORICAL SERVICE.

One of the most important problems which confronted the Belgians after the German occupation was that of keeping in touch with each other, of maintaining their national *morale* and of establishing some sort of contact with their government and army. Between them and this army, their own sons, brothers, fathers and friends, stood the impassable barrier of the German lines. The plight of those left behind these lines was desperate. They were, as a result of the great catastrophe which had come upon Belgium, a leaderless people, robbed and outraged, checked at every turn by the powerful army of occupation. That, in their misfortune, freedom of speech should have been left to them by the Teutons was not to have been expected. Indeed, every attempt was made by the Germans to secure possession of all the means of disseminating information in order that they themselves might have a free field for their work of beguiling the now supposedly conquered people into a position of acquiescence and submission. A part of the German plan was to impress upon the Belgian population the sense of German invincibility and the hopelessness of the cause of the Allies. Having obtained control of the telegraph, telephone and mail service, the Germans conducted their propaganda, through agencies which we might designate under four heads:

First. Information furnished gratis by the German authorities and by individuals.

Second. Printed matter of German origin which was allowed to be sold in Belgium.

Third. Newspapers and pamphlets announced as Belgian, but in reality more often German, which were subject to the censorship.

Fourth. Dutch or other foreign newspapers passed by the censorship. Of these foreign sheets many were doubtless under German ownership and control, but even pro-German foreign papers, like the "Nieuwe Rotterdamsche Courant," were by no means allowed to enter every day. Sometimes as many as twelve and fifteen numbers a month were refused permission to enter.

The Germans doubtless believed that they could in this manner see to it that no news was spread among the Belgians, except such as suited the German purpose. How gross were their attempts to deceive will be plain from a single instance. On the 15th of September, 1914, a poster was put up throughout the occupied section which read as follows: "Berlin, 14th of September (official): In the Western theatre of war [France] operations have taken place, the details of which cannot yet be published, and which have brought about a battle which is favorable for us. All the news which is being spread in this regard by all

means at the enemies' disposal, and which present the situation as unfavorable to us are false." Such, then, was the German account for Belgian consumption, of the overwhelming defeat of the Germans on the Marne.

One of the most interesting and curious chapters in recent Belgian history is therefore the account of the ingenuous ways in which they countered this attempt of the Germans and maintained for themselves at great peril independent methods of communication, for it is not to be supposed that a brave people who had dared oppose the German military domination would supinely submit to this intellectual tyranny.

After the German occupation of Brussels, August 20, 1914, notice was immediately served upon all the Brussels newspapers that they would have to subject themselves to the German censorship, or their offices would be closed. To the credit of Belgian journalists not one of their papers accepted this proposal at the time. Some went so far as to ruin their own plants. At the time, therefore, no newspapers were available in the capital. A few papers have since been revived in Brussels either by the Germans alone, or with the help of Belgians who have been bribed or forced into co-operation, and who in either case are heartily detested by the great majority of their countrymen. For the time being, however, no news except from German sources was supposed to be within the reach of the population.

The German plan was doomed to failure, for from the first papers did not get into Brussels from the outside, from Antwerp, Ghent, and even from the allied countries. These were brought to within a certain distance of the German lines hidden in the bottom of baskets of garden truck in the carts of market gardeners. Thus they were brought through, and then unpacked in the back room of a café, which, according to a prearranged plan, was changed daily, and given to news peddlers who sold ostensibly post cards, patriotic placards and authorized journals, which they announced to all customers. If a good Belgian approached them they added *sotto voce* "La Flandre Liberale?" (of Ghent), or the names of Paris, London, or Amsterdam journals. In spite of all the cost and risks "La Flandre" sold for 75 centimes, as a general thing. Occasionally the Germans succeeded in holding up one or some of the gardeners' carts, and the price then rose to two or three francs. After mid-October, however, practically all of the Belgian papers disappeared, having discontinued publication altogether, or having removed to London, Havre, or somewhere else safely beyond the lines. Though the situation had become much more difficult, blockade running continued through less regularly constituted channels. Rarely had the Germans succeeded in cap-

NUMÉRO 62

DEUXIÈME ANNÉE

FÉVRIER 1916

PRIX DU NUMÉRO — élastique, de zéro à l'infini (prière aux revendeurs de ne pas dépasser cette limite)

# LA LIBRE BELGIQUE

J'ai foi dans nos destinées; un Pays qui se défend s'impose au respect de tous. Ce pays ne périra pas! Dieu sera avec nous dans cette cause juste.

ALBERT, Roi des BELGES (4 août 1914).

Acceptons provisoirement les sacrifices qui nous sont imposés.....  
et attendons patiemment l'heure de la réparation.

A. MAX.

FONDÉE  
LE 1<sup>er</sup> FÉVRIER 1915

Envers les personnes qui dominent par la force militaire notre pays,  
ayons les égards que commande l'intérêt général. Respectons les  
règlements qu'elles nous imposent aussi longtemps qu'ils ne portent  
atteinte ni à la liberté de nos consciences chrétiennes ni à notre  
Dignité Patriotique.

## CHAGRIN D'AMOUR



### Composition de G. Lafrousse

Portrait extrait du *Die Wechsellager*

Desain oleh E. Papenc

Depuis un an déjà je te cherche nuit et jour,  
Petite abhorrée, tu m'échappes toujours.

ANNIVERSARY NUMBER OF THE SECRET BELGIAN NEWSPAPER, REPRESENTING THE GERMAN COMMANDANT REVIEWING HIS FUTILE EFFORTS TO SUPPRESS THE PAPER.



turing or killing all of the carriers of news, though death was occasionally the result of an attempt to bring in this contraband information. A large paper, like the London "Times," came to command a price as high as 200 francs, and the French papers regularly ran to two and three francs. The mounting risks incident to selling papers in the streets finally became too great, and this has now been discontinued, though not before it had cost the City of Brussels a fine of five million francs.

A German spy had approached a newspaper vender, and asked for one of the prohibited journals. The vender unfortunately gave him one, and the spy forthwith attempted to arrest him. The vender resisted, and the spy, who happened to be a German non-commissioned officer in disguise, began to strike him. It had been understood that the German police were always to wear a distinctive sign. As the aggressor had none, two Brussels policemen, not knowing that they were in the presence of a spy, defended the news vender whom they naturally and honestly believed to have been unjustly attacked by a private citizen. For this one of the policemen was given five years in prison, the other three, and the city of Brussels fined five million francs.

Fortunately by this time, however, the Belgians had devised an "information service" of their own which has continued ever since. This information service, if we may call it so, has achieved many amazing triumphs, for it has not been content to publish and circulate merely the newspapers which we shall discuss later, but it has printed and circulated, no one knows where, or how, prohibited books, which were frequently large and difficult to conceal. One of its greatest successes was the publication of several editions of "King Albert's Book," translated into French. This particularly exasperated the invaders, who destroyed one printing house and arrested the entire force. Yet a week later a new edition of ten thousand copies mysteriously emerged and was sold clandestinely for the benefit of "La Soupe," the name given to the Brussels National Food Committee. Several other volumes were printed and distributed, among others those of Waxweiler, the Bryce Report and "J'accuse." The difficulty and risk of maintaining a large printing plant in secrecy was naturally very serious, and other simpler methods, such as type-

writing and photography, were also drawn upon. Thus, for example, a copy of Raemaekers' cartoons had been introduced and circulated from hand to hand. The Germans succeeded finally in locating it, and it was of course immediately confiscated. Photographic copies of its pages had, however, been made

## Le Camp de Göttingen

No. 6.

Les manuscrits non insérés ne sont pas rendus. 21. Mars 1915.

**Etudiants allemands.** — La vie dans une université allemande d'importance moyenne est riche en poésie. Les étudiants jouissent d'une grande liberté et la mettent à profit pour faire de leur temps d'étude une époque de bonheur inoubliable.

Des corporations étudiantes y atteignent une grande signification. Ce ne sont pas seulement des sociétés, qui rapprochent les affilés pour le temps de leurs études. Elles lient plutôt leurs membres pour toute la vie. Celui qui entre dans une corporation étudiante, lui appartient pour toujours. Quand il quitte l'université, il ne délie pas le lien qui le retient à la société.

Il participe, ainsi plus tard à la prospérité de sa corporation, lui envoie de nombreux membres, et se joint dans les fêtes et, si possible, assiste aux fêtes de la corporation. Par l'acquisition, est fondé en quelque sorte un rapport d'appartenance, qui, tout comme les autres relations, compte pour la suite de la vie et assure une confiance mutuelle et des secours réciproques. La vie commune des membres, qui s'appellent frères, ne se borne donc pas à la participation aux associations.

La corporation forme, pour ainsi dire, une seule famille, dans le sein de laquelle chacun prend part aux intérêts de tous.

La valeur de la corporation consiste en ceci qu'elle cherche à remplacer la maison paternelle.

Quand le jeune étudiant quitte pour la première fois sa maison et doit apprendre à se chercher soi-même un chemin dans le vie nouveau, il ressent comme s'il recevait un riche cadeau, qu'on pourrait croire familial l'adopte, auquel il se trouve lié par les deux chaînes de l'amitié et de la confiance.

Dans le travail scolaire, il développe son intelligence et les forces intellectuelles selient. C'est une autre considération, mais pour l'équilibre de la vie intérieure, il est nécessaire que le cœur et la sensibilité puissent prendre leur essor. Et même temps l'individu se trouve guidé par de nombreuses tentations, que la discipline détermine en l'inscrivant comme il faut, pour être un bon citoyen, un bon soldat, un bon ouvrier, un bon commerçant, un bon homme de loi, un bon homme d'affaires, un bon homme de lettres, un bon homme de science, un bon homme d'art, un bon homme de politique, un bon homme de religion, un bon homme de famille, un bon homme de nation, un bon homme de monde, un bon homme de bien.



Il n'est pas le fait de l'individu, mais le fait de la corporation, qui la corporation est un organisme bien organisé, dans lequel chaque individu doit remplir sa place propre.

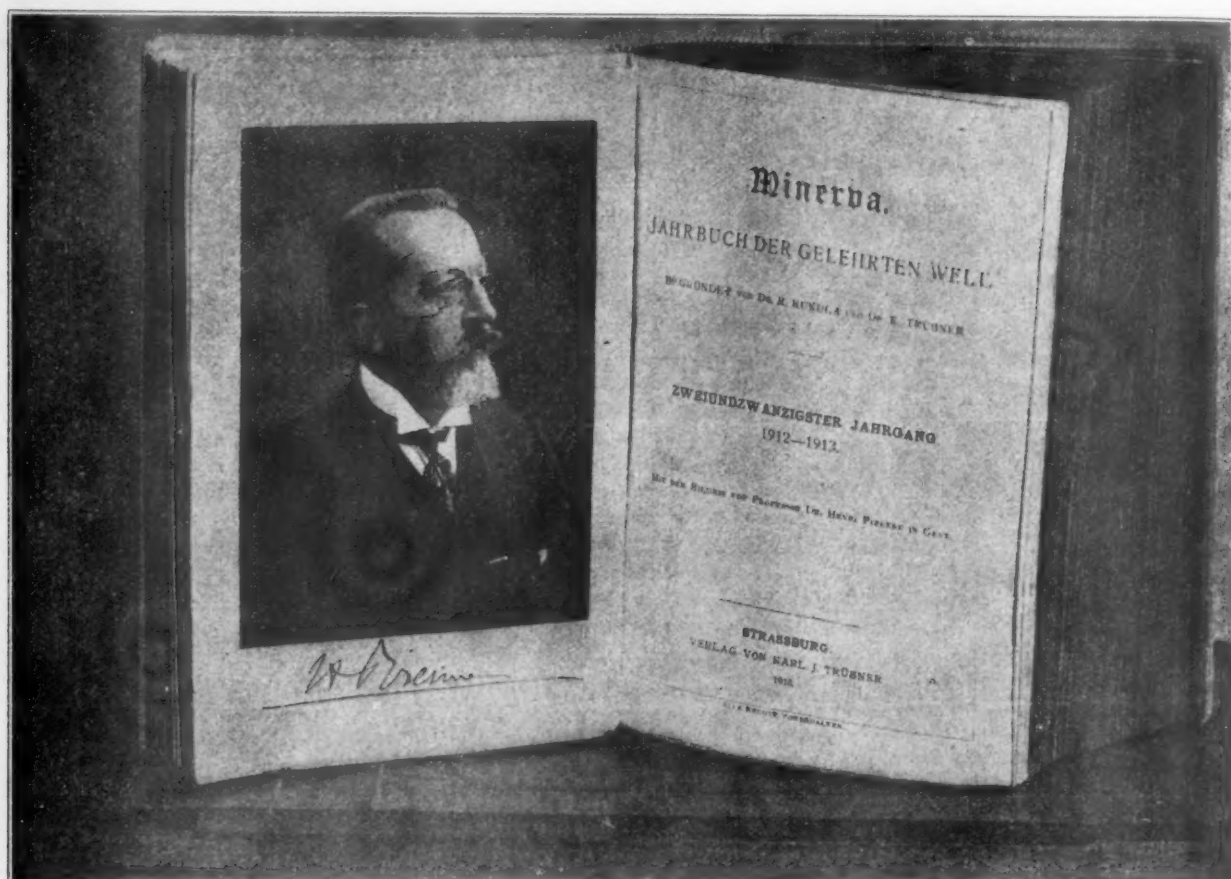
Elle a une constitution dont nous devons connaître les règles fondamentales. A la tête de la corporation se trouvent les dirigeants, élus par les membres et possédant d'une confiance sans bornes.

C'est par le fait de la corporation que l'individu se trouve lié à la corporation, et par la corporation que l'individu se trouve lié à la nation.

THE NEWSPAPER EDITED FOR BELGIAN PRISONERS BY THE GERMANS TO FURTHER THE GERMAN PROPAGANDA.

by one of the first readers, and soon the single confiscated copy was replaced by an entire photographic edition. Yet this necessarily cumbersome photographic edition was not the only means employed to disseminate the famous cartoons. Some of them were also reproduced in one of the less known clandestine papers, very properly named "La Cravache," "The Whip," and others in "La Libre Belgique."

Considering the great risks and difficulties under which the printing and distribution of books must be carried on, the relatively low prices at which they were sold are amazing, and indicate that this work was a work of patriotism, and not conducted in the



PROFESSOR HENRI PIRENNE, HONORARY DOCTOR OF THE UNIVERSITIES OF LEIPZIG AND TüBINGEN, OCCUPYING THE PLACE OF HONOR IN "MINERVA," EIGHTEEN MONTHS BEFORE THE DECLARATION OF WAR.

interest of profit. "J'accuse" was sold for five francs, Waxweiler's "La Belgique Neutre et Loyale" for three and a half francs. "King Albert's Book" was at first also sold for five francs, but the eager demand for it sent up the price, and later copies found purchasers for as high as twenty francs, though it should be remembered that the proceeds from the sale of this book were all devoted to charity. Works printed outside of Belgium, whose sale was prohibited, likewise showed but slight appreciation in the selling price, and well known pamphlets like those of Bédier on "The German Crimes," of Weiss on the "Violation of the Neutrality of Belgium and Luxemburg," which were sold in France for fifty centimes, were distributed by hundreds in Belgium at seventy-five. In addition to the regularly printed books and prohibited books from outside and the printed clandestine newspapers, there are also typewritten sheets, mimeographed or manifolded, of which large editions are circulated. The most important of these is "La Soupe," which sends out every week about fifty typewritten pages, which are equivalent in content to more than one hundred pages of an ordinary octavo volume. Among other things it printed the Report of the Belgian Commission of Inquiry, extracts from the Blue

Book and the Yellow Book, the Manifesto of ninety-three German Professors, with a dozen replies, the letter of Romain Rolland to Hauptmann, and the latter's reply, poetry by Rostand and Verhaeren, Cardinal Mercier's Pastoral Letter, and speeches of the Belgian minister, Lloyd George, and Maurice Maeterlinck.

In addition to providing such news and encouragement, it fulfilled another, perhaps even more important, function by exposing the falsehoods of the numerous German journals and pamphlets of propaganda, which were scattered throughout Belgium. Nothing illustrates better the amazing faith of the Germans in the efficacy of their own propaganda than their brazen attempt to prove to the martyred Belgians themselves that Germany had treated them only with kindness and justice. To this end they had distributed in Belgium countless pamphlets in French, Flemish and German, justifying their conduct during and after the invasion. The falsehoods here were so gross and direct contradictory evidence so easily available that the task of "La Soupe" and its "esteemed contemporaries" was not a difficult one, and the value of a German document is probably discounted more severely in Belgium than in any other country.

Perhaps it was because of their lack of success with the ordinary methods of propaganda which were so easily exposed that the Germans, noticing the effect of the clandestine Belgian press, decided to go and do likewise. They themselves therefore published a little sheet resembling in form the more famous of the Belgian papers, which they called "Le Fouet." It was distributed with affected secrecy, and treated by the Germans who published it, as the work of conspirators. It usually opened with ponderous raillery of some German worthy like von Bethmann-Hollweg, while the rest of the paper was devoted to sowing dissension among the Belgians. Their methods were so gross and coarse, however, that it deceived but few, and it served only as a German testimony to the importance of the clandestine Belgian press.

There is an amusing story told by Lavissee in his "Youth of Frederick the Great," of how one day Frederick William, King of Prussia, was walking "Unter Den Linden." Nearby some men were playing bowls. On the approach of Frederick William, they all fled, but the King ran after them, caught one of them, and holding him by the collar asked him furiously, "Why did you run away when you saw the King?"

"Sire," replied the poor man, "I was afraid."

"Oh!" returned the King, "you were afraid, were you?" And lifting his heavy stick he beat the man, repeating with every blow, "You must love me, you must love me."

The psychology of Frederick William is paralleled by that of the present German officials. After having failed in the use of force, they resorted to cajolery. We can give but two instances which resulted in what may very properly be called curiosities of the war. As manifest proof of their kind intentions toward the Belgians, they attempted to establish a Flemish University at Ghent, and they printed two newspapers for Belgian prisoners, "Onze Taal" and "Le Camp de Göttingen," the latter of which is reproduced on another page.

"Onze Taal" and "Le Camp de Göttingen" were unique newspapers for Belgian prisoners. In the prison camps of Germany, newspapers of somewhat this appearance are, to be sure, published, but they are edited by the prisoners themselves. At the Camp of Göttingen the newspapers are published for the prisoners by the Germans! They are edited by Professor Karl Stange, of the University of Göttingen. Why is it that the Germans are so solicitous about the recreation of the Belgian prisoners? For political reasons only. They are so blinded by the desire for



PROFESSOR HENRI PIRENNE IN THE PRISON CAMP AT HOLZMINDEN, EIGHTEEN MONTHS AFTER THE DECLARATION OF WAR.



world domination, that they think they will soon teach the Belgians to hate each other by means of this and other diversions.

The Germans are constantly trying to set the Belgians at variance with each other—that is to separate the Flemings from the Walloons. This is very evident from what happened at Camp Soltau at the beginning of 1915. The authorities of this camp asked the Belgians to register either as Flemings or Walloons. They refused, saying that they were all Belgians. The Germans, however, were not to be thwarted in their designs. They therefore ordered cards to be given to the prisoners on which, amongst other things, each man was asked to give his birthplace. In this way the Germans obtained the desired information. The Flemings were then told that if they wished to go to the camp at Göttingen, they would receive special favors. Only 14 out of 14,000 men accepted. The Germans now decided to force their favors on the Flemings and ordered them to be sent to the camp at Göttingen. One day in 1915 a colonel came to the camp and proposed that they sign a request, asking to be separated from the Walloons. He added that the Germans had a special preference for the Flemings whom they considered their racial brothers. Naturally the Flemings refused. A few days later, however, they did sign a petition, saying that "Every Fleming is first and above all a Belgian, and nothing but a Belgian." They also stated that they were willing to share the fate of their countrymen, the Walloons, and wished to refuse absolutely all favors of the Germans.

These prisoners understood better than German professors themselves that people can be united only through "common past, common sufferings, common will, a common ideal of liberty," and not "by race alone."

A similarly transparent purpose underlay the attempt of the Germans to establish Ghent as a Flemish University, which resulted in the deportation and internment in Germany of the famous Belgian professors, Pirenne and Frédéricq. All of the details of this episode cannot be given in their final form until after the war, though the main facts are available in the very careful and scientific investigation, "The Imprisonment of the Ghent Professors," by K. Nyrop, one of the greatest living authorities on Romance philology and a professor at the University of Copenhagen. Were it not for the distressing consequences to Professors Pirenne and Frédéricq, it might be regarded as a grim jest. Both of these gentlemen are scholars of the very highest standing, whose works are known to most teachers of history in America. Indeed, to both of them lectureships were offered by well known American universities.

Henri Pirenne was regarded as the most famous Belgian historian, and as one of the greatest European historians by the Germans themselves. Nothing could illustrate this any more clearly than the fact that his picture was published in the 1913 number of "Minerva," the famous "Who's Who" of the aca-

demic world. In the edition in which the place of honor was given to his portrait, we find the following note signed by the editors:

"Professor Henri Pirenne, of Ghent, the famous historian of his country, has with great friendliness given us permission to adorn this periodical with his picture. We again tender him our most heartfelt thanks for this privilege."

His most celebrated work, "The History of Belgium," had been published in German before it appeared in French, and a short time before the war Professor Karl Lamprecht, of Leipzig, sent for a young Belgian doctor, a pupil of Pirenne, to teach history in the Seminar für Weltgeschichte according to the Belgian method—that is, the method of M. Pirenne.

Before the war the very important Flemish party in Belgium had desired to make the University of Ghent entirely Flemish. Frédéricq has been the leader of the Flemish party. In the existing difference in parties, General von Bissing thought he saw his opportunity to win over the *flamingants* by granting them what they so eagerly desired. But it was again a case of *Timeo Danaos et dona ferentes*, even to the bitterest of the Flemish party. Before the war a petition to make the University of Ghent Flemish had been signed by more than one hundred thousand voters in Belgium. Of these, and among the four and a half million Belgians still in Belgium, only one hundred and fifty could be found to sign a manifesto in favor of Bissing's "reform."

Even by offering professorships to a few individual Belgians, and to Belgians of German ancestry and training, he was unable to assemble a faculty and had to send a request to Holland. Those who accepted posts, whether Belgians or Dutch, were looked upon with contempt, and the Belgians were spat upon in the street. By his methods of recruiting, von Bissing succeeded in assembling a faculty of about fifteen and in opening the University. The inauguration was held on October 24, and the feature of the day was the address by the Governor-General himself, in which he emphasized the magnanimity of the Germans and the "co-operation and mutual confidence and complete understanding" of Germans and Flemings.

Nothing illustrates the grim irony of his procedure any better than the following passage from Professor Nyrop:

"On the same day as the Governor-General inaugurated his magnanimous gift to the Flemish population and spoke high-flown words about mutual confidence and understanding between the Germans and the Flemings, he caused five thousand of the working population of Ghent to be deported to Germany. Five thousand honest Flemings were taken away against their will from house and home; they were taken under military escort to the railway station, from whence they were transmitted further.

"It is difficult to imagine a better illustration of the real conditions. Not even Germany's worst enemies could have devised a more effective background

for the inauguration of the Flemish University than the mass deportation of Flemings carried out by the Governor-General himself.

"Baron von Bissing was right in reminding his hearers of the two heroic sisters, thought and the sword, ruling the world. But it was hardly wise of him on October 24 to so vigorously accentuate the fact that it was the sword which had the supreme command, and that he had put thought out of action."

Whether or not the rectorship of this university of Ghent had been offered to Pirenne or Frédéricq by von Bissing, we are not able to affirm. Rumor has it

prisoners. "It was," says Nyrop, "only after a long time had elapsed that they were treated with the consideration which was due to their fame, their social standing, and their age." In the illustrations Professor Pirenne appears first in the place of honor in "Minerva," then among a group of prisoners in a German camp.

The effect of these attempts to create dissension has been exactly the opposite of what the Germans expected. Never have the Belgians been as closely united as they are to-day. If, then, we discuss at the close of this article the story of "La Libre Belgique"

Es gehen Gerüchte um, wodurch behauptet wird, dass die jungen Belgier zu ihren Fahnen einberufen werden sollen.

Daher wird allen jungen Leuten, welche sich unter der Ueberwachung der deutschen Meldeämter befinden, in Erinnerung gebracht, dass

- 1., nur das deutsche Generalgouvernement das Recht hat, Gesetze zu erlassen,
- 2., alle von der ehemaligen belgischen Regierung getroffenen Massnahmen daher null und nichtig sind,
- 3., kein Belgier durch seine ehemalige Regierung weder als fahnenflüchtig angesehen, noch bestraft werden kann,
- 4., dagegen die jungen Leute, welche die Grenze zu überschreiten versuchen, die rechtsgültigen Verordnungen des General-Gouvernements verletzen. Sie würden nebst ihren Familien strengstens bestraft werden.

Deutsches Meldeamt Verviers.

1. 2. 1916.

En raison des bruits qui circulent concernant l'appel sous les drapeaux de certains sujets belges, il est rappelé à tous les jeunes gens qui se trouvent sous le contrôle de l'autorité militaire que :

- 1., le Gouvernement-Général Allemand a seul le droit de promulguer des lois,
- 2., toutes les dispositions prises par l'ancien gouvernement belge sont — de ce fait — considérées comme nulles et non avenues,
- 3., pas un belge ne pourra être considéré ou puni comme déserteur par son ancien gouvernement,
- 4., par contre, les jeunes gens qui essaieraient de franchir la frontière enfreindraient les ordres du Gouvernement-Général et seraient punis ainsi que leur famille avec toute la sévérité des lois en vigueur.

Bureau de Contrôle allemand.

1. 2. 1916.

OFFICIAL GERMAN POSTER, PRINTED IN GERMAN AND FRENCH, ANNOUNCING THE CRIMINAL RESPONSIBILITY OF BELGIAN PARENTS WHOSE SONS DISCHARGE THEIR PATRIOTIC DUTY.

that it was. It is certain in any case that both of them, with the overwhelming majority of their colleagues, refused to support the German plan for exploiting party differences in their country. Both of them were men of the highest personal character, and we have already seen how Germany itself had honored Pirenne. But the war has changed all that. They now call M. Pirenne "a romancer" in the pay of Belgian politicians. These two European celebrities were first interned in an officers' camp in Germany. Later they were transferred to the prison camps at Holzminden and Gutersloh, where they were lodged in barracks and had numbers and badges like ordinary

at length, it must not be forgotten that a large portion of the Belgian clandestine press is printed in Flemish. Among the more important of the Flemish leaflets are "The Flemish Lion" ("De Vlaamsche Leeuw") and "The Free Voice" ("De Vrije Stem"), which are reported as still appearing, as one of them puts it, with regular irregularity. Their difficulties of publication are in many ways similar to those to be detailed in the more extended account of "La Libre Belgique."

The frequency and the spirit of such publications were sufficient indication to the Germans that the Belgians refused to admit that they were a conquered people. They admitted only that their country had

been unjustly invaded and that the invader in due time would be turned back whence he came, having acquired nothing but an increased reputation for injustice and a lasting legacy of hatred and scorn.

The Germans, as was to have been expected, redoubled their brutalities as time passed, and they became more settled in their occupation. They increased their efforts to establish an iron-bound censorship. On the Dutch frontier they built an electrified wire barrier, which it meant death to touch; then two such barriers protected by a zone which it was death to enter, and defended by sentries and patrols of horse and foot, day and night. All movements in the interior were hampered by the very complicated system of passports. In addition they attempted to cut off absolutely the correspondence still continuing between parents in Belgium and their sons at the front. By thus making the lot of the isolated parents more difficult, they tried to prevent the continual exodus of young Belgians, who, at great risk, still succeeded in filtering through the lines to the Belgian army. Persons caught assisting in forwarding letters were sometimes shot, or condemned to long terms of imprisonment. How dangerous it was to attempt to communicate with one's friends or relatives we may see from the following:

Whenever a messenger was captured his letters were taken from him and delivered by German spies to the addressee. The spy would then offer to carry back the answer. If the receiver of the letter acquiesced and wrote a reply, he was immediately arrested for communicating with the enemy.

The general inhumanity of the German procedure will be evident also from the following:

Dr. Canon at Chièvres had a funeral service said for his son, a priest, who had been killed at Lizerne while ministering to the wounded. At the moment of his deep grief Dr. Canon was summoned to the Kommandantur. The Prussian officer declared:

"You had a service said for your son, a soldier in the Allied army. How did you know he was dead? You must be in communication with the enemy! If on Thursday (it was then Monday) you have not told us your means of information you will be condemned to ten thousand marks fine." Dr. Canon paid the fine.

Also in order to prevent the escape of the young Belgians, who wish to join their army, the Germans in this case, as in so many others, invoke the doctrine of family responsibility, forbidden by the Hague Convention and all considerations of law. One of their posters is reproduced in this number, and it will be noticed that article 4 states: "The families will be punished with extreme severity in the attempt of any of the young people to cross the frontier with a view to fulfilling their military obligations in the Belgian army." Nor were the Germans content with threats, they carried out this brutal measure with all the inhumanity that might be imagined, and among the better known victims was Mr. Maurice Vauthier, who was professor of Roman Law at Brussels and Communal Secretary.

The deportations which began shortly after were further calculated to break the spirit of the population. How far they were from succeeding is shown by the post card here reproduced which was sent by one of the deported citizens from Rastenberg. Translated it reads as follows:

"Rastenberg, Dec. 28th, 1916.

"DEAR . . . . . :

"I am sure that you have been told of my fate. I will tell you that it is now 37 days since I left my parents and that I am treated as a prisoner of war. You must understand the rest, you will already have heard news of me. I was 21 days in the camp at Cassel; they on the 18th, they sent us to Rastenberg to force us to work threatening us with arms, with prison and with starvation; we remained four days without eating, it is by our mouths that they forced us most (sic). But they never got a signature. Hoping that the war will soon be finished, dear . . . and . . . , I send you my best wishes and New Year greetings and wish you perfect health. I wish above all, dear . . . that you may never have to suffer my present fate. May God keep you from it."

To the threat of deportation the Belgians replied with many colored placards and handbills, which were passed from hand to hand by the people. A characteristic one of these is the one beginning "Tenez Bon!" which we reproduce.

Measures like these may well have been expected to take all the heart and spirit out of the population. Such, however, was not the case. The Belgians have always been recognized as lovers of "life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness." As the circulation of uncensored newspapers became more and more difficult, the Belgians, though they never ceased to circulate them, had recourse to yet other means of communication. Broad humor is indigenous in Flanders. One of the methods employed by the people to maintain their morale and cheer each other up was the circulation, "under the mantle," as they say, of typewritten jokes and quips on their aggressors. Some of these deserve quotation. Here is a fair sample, translated from a typewritten sheet. (It should be remembered that the manifesto of the ninety-three German professors, with its answers, had been widely circulated in Belgium.)

An old peasant came to town every day with his cart hitched to an ass. The old Landsturm (80 per cent. coarse)\* who was on duty at the entrance to the town examines his papers and asks for the name of the ass.

"My ass? He hasn't any name!"

"He will have to have one. In our country all asses have names. I could easily cite you ninety-three of them."

Some days later.

"Well," said the Landsturm, "did you pick out a name?"

"I—I can't seem to find one that fits."

"Call him Albert, then."

\* Common phrase used by coal dealers in Belgium.



"Ah, pardon!" answered the peasant, "that would be insulting to my King."

"Oh, la, la, what scruples. Well, call him William."

"Ah, pardon!" said the peasant, "that would be insulting to my ass."

Here is another.

A group of Landsturmiers sat down at the table in an inn. A soldier seeing a scale wishes to weigh himself. "Useless," says the innkeeper, "you weigh 92 kilos." This was verified and found to be his weight. To the second soldier who wished to know if he had profited by his stay in Belgium, the owner also told his weight in advance ("98 kilos"). General astonishment! It was absolutely exact. In short, all the soldiers had their weight told them before getting on the scale, 105 kilos, 89 kilos, 96 kilos, 110 kilos.

"But," they said, "how can you guess our weight so exactly?"

"It's a matter of habit," answered the Belgian. "I am a seller of hogs." (*Je suis marchand de cochons.*)

Indeed, one of the most remarkable facts about this clandestine press in the martyred country is its irrepressible humor, at times broad and guffawing, at others grim and defiant, but never sullen or impotent. How true this is will be plain from some of the occasional merry extracts from this press which are to follow, and which are merely characteristic.

To better appreciate such spirit it will be well to consider for a moment some of the difficulties and risks which are involved in the publication of the most famous of these prohibited journals, "La Libre Belgique." M. Massart is authority for the statement that editions of as many as ten thousand copies have been printed and distributed under the noses of the

German spies and troops, and over one hundred different numbers had appeared by 1917, and, so far as information is now available, it still continues its chipper and hazardous career. Seventy-five thousand francs have been offered by the German Kommandan-

Ablender:.....

Armeel.	Rango
Division	Det.
Regt.	Kol.
Battillon	Gelehnader
Abteilung	
S. M. Sch.	
Belong	
Format	
Reg. 1. 1. 1.	
Bei gleich in die Armeel. 1. 1. 1.	
Einlagenimpetum angeschlossen	

Expédition

Allemagne Belg. Kalle  
Kallwerk Postenberg

Seldpostkarte



Bruxelles  
Belgique

*It has been found in some of the most remarkable facts about this clandestine press in the martyred country is its irrepressible humor, at times broad and guffawing, at others grim and defiant, but never sullen or impotent. How true this is will be plain from some of the occasional merry extracts from this press which are to follow, and which are merely characteristic.*

POSTCARD FROM ONE OF THE DEPORTED BELGIANS TO HER PARENTS.

tur to any one who would give information. Yet none has been given. There is no subscription price, and no regular subscription list. It is a crime to distribute or deliver it, as well as to print or to have it in your possession, and yet it is printed, distributed,

read, and passed from hand to hand. In the early period it was dropped into your letter box in a plain envelope. Now it is usually, we believe, mysteriously left in the house on the table. It will be readily seen that such a patriotic enterprise could only be based on absolute confidence among all those concerned. Large bundles were distributed to friends, who divided and repacked smaller bundles until the individual copies were finally turned over *à qui de droit*. It was a matter of pride to have the first copy of each issue left on the desk of Governor-General von Bissing. We may easily imagine his sentiments on reading No. 49, for instance, of October, 1915, which contained a letter to his Excellence von Bissing, German Governor, from which we quote the following:

"EXCELLENCE:

"You overwhelm us with attentions. Your secret and public agents multiply their searches for 'La Libre Belgique.' You have even mobilized, they tell us, a special brigade of detectives to come from Berlin to discover the editors, publishers, distributors, etc. You are losing your time and spending your money uselessly. It is true that you have more than once laid hands on a bundle of copies of the paper, which is your nightmare, and you have inflicted severe fines upon those who have had it in their possession. But 'La Libre Belgique' still continues to appear as . . . irregularly as in the past, and its editions have not ceased to increase . . . regularly, after each one of your expeditions. . . .

"Do not believe, dear Baron, that we are naïve enough to believe that on our advice you are going to

abandon the hope of having some Sherlock Holmes of contraband discover us. We know that nothing stops a German when he has once started on the wrong road, the sentiment of ridicule no more than any other scruple, nor the certitude of final defeat. That is why we present, Excellence, on the occasion of your past, present, and future disappointments this expression of our very sincere and most disrespectful condolences.

"Signed

"LA LIBRE BELGIQUE."

To lay such a copy on his desk demanded an act of heroism such as is called for from him who crosses the German lines, and yet the courageous patriot knew that he would meet an ignominious fate if caught. Nothing speaks louder for the *morale* of the occupied country. The trail of humor which we have already noted, and of grim practical joking runs through its history. Some of its difficulties as well as its love of fun will be evident from the following address to its readers entitled, "A Little Indulgence Please."

"Some readers have complained of the disagreeable odor of certain of our issues; let them kindly excuse us, but they must understand that in war times one cannot always choose his traveling companions, so 'La Libre Belgique' found itself forced to travel with pickled herring, Herve cheese, and carbide of calcium. We ask our readers to have for 'La Libre Belgique' the same indulgence which they find themselves forced to show at times for certain of their neighbors in the tramway, but the spring is coming,

**TENEZ BON !**  
**Bruxellois ! Tenez bon !**  
 Les Gouvernements neutres protestent  
 Le pape intervient en notre faveur  
 Les journaux Hollandais ne nous parviennent plus que très rarement  
 Les *Trades Unions* américaines se lèvent contre l'esclavage que les allemands veulent nous imposer !  
**Bruxellois ! Tenez bon !**  
 Il dépend de votre ténacité de sauver la Belgique de l'esclavage et du déshonneur !  
 Si on veut nous emmener, il ne faut pas arracher un an de nos foyers, de nos mansardes, de nos quartiers.  
 Ne partez pas, ne partez pas, ne partez pas !  
 Qu'on nous arrête tous !  
 Nous sommes tous solidaires  
 Plutôt tous que quelques-uns !  
**L'UNION FAIT LA FORCE !**

## HOLD ON!

### Citizens of Brussels, Hold on!

Neutral Governments are protesting!  
 The Pope is intervening in our favour!  
 Dutch papers only reach us at very rare intervals!

The American Trade Unions are rising against the slavery that the Germans would impose upon us!

### Citizens of Brussels, Hold on!

It depends on your tenacity to save Belgium from slavery and dishonour!

If they want to take us let them fetch us from our homes, from our garrets, from our dwellings!

Neither master nor workman, priest nor employed, workers nor unemployed, let none answer their call!

Let them arrest us all!

Rather all than a few!

We are all of one mind!

## UNION IS STRENGTH!

NUMÉRO 83

DEUXIÈME ANNÉE

JUILLET 1916

PRIX DU NUMÉRO — Élastique, de zéro à l'infini (prière aux revendeurs de ne pas dépasser cette limite)

# LA LIBRE BELGIQUE

J'ai foi dans nos destinées; un Pays qui se défend s'impose au respect de tous ce pays ne périra pas! Dieu sera avec nous dans cette cause juste.

ALBERT. Roi des Belges (4 août 1914).  
Acceptons provisoirement les sacrifices qui nous sont imposés.  
et attendons patiemment l'heure de la réparation. A MAX.

FONDÉE

LE 1<sup>er</sup> FÉVRIER 1915

Envers les personnes qui dominent par la force militaire notre pays, ayons les égards que commande l'intérêt général. Respectons les règlements qu'elles nous imposent aussi longtemps qu'ils ne portent atteinte ni à la liberté de nos consciences chrétiennes ni à notre *Dignité Patriotique*.

Max MERCIER.

BULLETIN DE PROPAGANDE PATRIOTIQUE — RÉGULIÈREMENT IRRÉGULIER  
NE SE SOUMETTANT A AUCUNE CENSURE

ADRESSE TÉLÉGRAPHIQUE  
KOMMANDANTUR - BRUXELLES

BUREAUX ET ADMINISTRATION  
ne pouvant être un emplacement  
de tout repos, ils sont installés  
dans une cave automobile

ANNONCES : Les affaires étant nulles  
sous la domination allemande, nous avons  
supprimé la page d'annonces et con-  
seillons à nos clients de réserver leur  
argent pour des temps meilleurs.



VERS LA GLOIRE (d'après J.-F. PORTAELS).



and we shall attempt the impossible, to give to 'La Libre Belgique' the perfume of roses and violets.

"The present number is late; this is the reason: we had to reprint the edition. 'La Libre Belgique' encountered the enemy. She threw herself into the water to save herself by swimming and was drowned. (*Requiescat in pace!*)"

Here is another notice, "To Our Readers."

"If they receive the visit of an honorable ecclesiastic, who will attempt to speak to them about 'La Libre Belgique,' of the good that this journal accomplishes, etc., they are requested to take this frocked Boche politely by the arm and put him out without more ado.

"Nevertheless we grant full freedom of action to all those who would like to embellish this ejection with a master kick upon that portion of the anatomy vulgarly called 'the Prussian.' This would be merited if not meritorious."

The Germans offered larger sums for information, and turned upside down every suspected house, barn or garage. Every now and then the Kommandantur at Brussels received an anonymous letter, giving very precise directions for finding the house and the room in which the journal was published. A squad of Ger-

man secret agents would be summoned, directions would be given, and they would converge upon the house indicated, rush the street door, run down the hall, climb the stair, count the entrances to the right and force the door—to a water-closet.

Rash in its seemingly impudent imprudence, slipping out of every carefully laid German snare with baffling boyish ingenuity, and withdrawing like a defiant gamin, with thumb at nose and twiddling fingers, it is no wonder that this imp of the perverse began to rasp the nerves of von Bissing, for the worst of it was that he could not fail to recognize that this was not the desperate game of a single foolhardy adventurer. It could succeed only through the co-operation of at least hundreds of patriots, who edited, printed, received, distributed, and read it. It boldly served almost weekly notices of stupidity and impotence on the German Kommandantur. It was one of the most stinging rebukes to that *Machtpolitik*, of which von Bissing was the exponent. Behind it lay the challenge of the medieval butchers and cloth-makers of Ghent and Bruges, defiant, if at bay, the still joyous life and liberty-loving spirit of the land of the Kermess and Mannekenpis.

## Reading References

to accompany the

## Topical Outline of the War

PUBLISHED IN THE WAR SUPPLEMENT FOR JANUARY.

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